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THE READING-TELLING METHOD IN THE USE OF THE SHORT STORY IN TEACHING SPOKEN ENGLISH

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IT is the educational fashion to make what we teach of practical significance. This is the "project-method" and from teaching geometry to teaching geography, this pragmatic system is holding sway. The ultimate test which our students and their parents apply to the teaching of speech is its practical value. Does the word we teach have a greater efficiency than the word the students use? Does the effect of our work carry over to the home, and does the new habit establish itself in the extra-classroom activities of the pupil? To make the work sufficiently vital, and to make it militate the corruption of the environment and the usage to which our students are accustomed through all the senses which are speech-affected—this is the task which confronts the teacher of speech in the high school.

To accomplish the end our material must have certain marked qualities. It must touch closely the interest of the student outside of school. It must be of such a character as to make her think of it and of the speech-forms so closely associated with it in all the hours spent outside of the class. The teacher of spoken English is under the necessity of using advertising methods—to get attention and to hold it to the problem of improving the means of communication of ideas. There must be a very marked attempt to get results through what psychologists call "summation of stimuli." The work must be thrilling, "frappant," in the same sense that an advertisement of a new soap or a new satin must be so. Why make a change in a commodity if we are accustomed to and sufficiently pleased with the old? There must be a very evident gain if students

are to change their modes of speech. Convinced that they speak a "dialect" which, nevertheless, serves the purpose of intercourse, they must be set afire with ambition to alter habits which have settled since their speech began; otherwise our efforts are vain.

Both from the point of view of interest—the narrative of common life with the usual or unusual coloring—and from the point of view of the ordinary prose communication currency which is used—the short story has a decided advantage in the high school course over poetical material or orations; though these, too, undoubtedly have a place in the fully developed curriculum. The story of other people makes an appeal to the adolescent which is direct, compelling, and not too intellectual. It appeals to her sense of the dramatic, and satisfies the boundless curiosity of her period of life; it has the "conversation" for which the girl still looks in choosing a book from the library shelf.

The short story has the advantage of being a unit easily handled within the period. While it would be possible to use the longer narrative in incident chapters—the use of the short story has the advantage of the constantly new point of view and the new interest of character, setting, and action problem. Properly selected and carefully treated—and it is essential to teach our students how to condense—in a single period of forty-five minutes three, or even four stories may be told.

The writer has found that stories of plot, rather than of setting or character, should be chosen. Atmosphere stories do not "tell" well, and if it be deemed advisable to use one, it should be assigned to an individual student who has rather exceptional ability. Galsworthy's "Quality." for example, is too difficult; its plot is overshadowed by the delicate character drawing and the subtle mood creation. In the same sense, though in a different way, Edith Wharton's "The Mission of Jane," seems to be too delicate in conception; it is psychologically beyond the high-school girl. Again, the story which is too involved and has a great number of incidents —"The Keeper of the Light" of Van Dyke—offers difficulties. The characters should be few and very human—the plot simple and unified—the setting not too remote from the lives or imaginations of the students. Humor is greatly appreciated; the practical joke element, as in "Goliath" by Thomas Bailey Aldrich, or "The Tenor" by H. C. Bunner, is received with enthusiasm. Pathos,

which is within the gamut of the student's emotions, as in De Maupassant's "The Necklace," or Tagore's "My Lord the Baby," is always acceptable. Stories of children are usually favorites. "Wee Willie Winkie" by Kipling, "The Right Promethean Fire" by George Madden Martin, the stories of Myra Kelly are all exceedingly popular. A list of stories and story anthologies, most of which the writer has used in her classes, is appended.

Almost of greater importance in our experiment with the short story is our method. We have called it the "Reading-Telling" method. To the teacher who knows the psycho-physical nature of the adolescent—self consciousness and consciousness of self are the evil and the good which must, at one and the same moment, be destroyed and developed. The short story is a delightful experience and it belongs to one individual of the group. It is her privilege to share it. It cannot be read as this would consume too much time. Therefore, it must be condensed. Certain explanations, descriptions, conversations can be omitted and the story still be more than a mere outline. There are certain lovely, original, or spicy paragraphs or sentences that must be given in the author's own words. The group must enjoy the story and it must say, when the student has "treated" it thus: "What a pity we couldn't have heard it all!"

There can be no moments of bitter self-consciousness, no embarrassed pauses, for the book is always there, the author will speak if the student fails the group—but the fun and the interest is often sacrified and the joyousness of the experience of the story-teller, the close personal relation of narrator and hearers, is lost. This is a personal experience and the student must feel herself as one with the author. This last relieves her of any consciousness of "showing off", since she is not in any sense reciting. Thus the student's taste for good art—for that which is sincere rather than "elocutionary"—may be cultivated, and she is taught to know the difference between speaking or reading for effect and for sharing experience.

The failure to speak and to read well—to interpret—is due to egotism (in centering attention too much upon the self which is awkward or the self which is less awkward but equally outside the limits of the composition, original or otherwise). The student who gazes up at the ceiling or out of the window as she speaks—or who

stands goose-fashion, one foot tucked under her skirt—or dance-set, as if to begin a jig—or the one who actually sways back and forth as she reads—is merely indicating physically a failure to establish mental poise. The whole question resolves itself into how we can establish such mental control and balance as will make for good presentation in reading and speaking. To establish an extra-ego habit of mind—that is, to interest the student so much in the subject matter; to make her so wish to share the story which she alone of all the group has heard—this is one of the most vital aims in the training of our students.

In concluding, the writer, whose desire it is to make this article as useful to other teachers as is possible through the medium of pen and paper—suggests the method of treating O. Henry's "The Gift of the Magi"—a story which she has several times used as the typical one from which the students might work in preparing their own stories.

THE GIFT OF THE MAGI

By O. Henry

Mr. and Mrs. James Dillingham Young were two very young people indeed who lived in a very tiny furnished flat at $8.00 per week. Mr. James Dillingham, familiarly called "Jim", was a clerk who earned the munificent sum of $20.00; and on this he supported Della and the flat, which included (read) "the letter-box into which no letter would go and the electric button from which no mortal finger could coax a ring."

It was the day before Christmas and Della was sobbing bitterly on the shabby little couch. Della had wanted so much to buy her Jim a Christmas gift; she had saved so earnestly for months in preparation for the day and the results showed but $1.87. She had counted it three times and it was really only $1.87 and of course her dreams of buying Jim the something (read) "fine and rare and sterling, something just a little bit near to being worthy of the honor of being owned by Jim" were vanished.

(Read) "Della finished her cry and stood and attended to her cheeks with a powder rag. She stood by the window and looked dully out at a gray cat walking a gray fence in a gray backyard." Suddenly she whirled from the window and looked at herself in the narrow pier-glass—an idea had come! Rapidly she undid her hair and let it free.

(Read) "Now there were two possessions of the James Dillingham Youngs' in which they both took a mighty pride—one was Jim's gold watch that had been his father's and his grand-father's. The other was Della's hair. Had the Queen of Sheba lived in the flat across the air-shaft, Della would have let her hair hang out of the window some day to dry just to depreciate Her Majesty's gold and gifts. Had King Solomon been the janitor, with all his treasures piled up in the basement, Jim would have pulled out his watch every time he passed, just to see him pluck at his beard from envy."

Her beautiful long hair fell below her knees. Nervously she did it up again. Then she fetched her old brown jacket and her old brown hat, brushed a tear or two away and fluttered out of the door and down the stairs to the street. She stopped before a sign which read: (read) "Mme.

Sophronie, Hair Goods of all Kinds. One flight up Della ran. 'Will you buy my hair?' asked Della. 'I buy hair', said Madame, 'take your hat off and let's have a sight at the looks of it.' Down rippled the brown cascade. 'Twenty dollars', said Madame. 'Give it to me quick', said Della."

The next two hours tripped by on rosy wings. Della ransacked the shops. Finally she came upon it—a platinum fob chain—simple and chaste in design—but elegant and worthy even of the watch. "Twenty-one dollars" said the clerk across the counter and Della counted it out. Jim could look at his watch in any company and need never do so on the sly any more on account of the old leather strap.

When Della reached home, she sought the curling irons. After forty minutes she looked at herself carefully, critically. (Read) " 'If Jim doesn't kill me,' she said to herself, 'before he takes a second look at me, he'll say I look like a Coney Island chorus girl. But what could I do—oh! what could I do with a dollar and eighty-seven cents?' "

At seven o'clock the coffee was made and the frying pan was ready to cook the chops. Della was waiting impatiently for Jim. Her heart was beating nervously and it whispered: "Please God, make him think I'm pretty still." The door finally opened and Jim stepped in. He fixed his eyes upon Della—his expression was terrifying.

"Jim darling," cried Della, "don't look at me that way. Say 'Merry Christmas' to your Della, Jim. Jim dear, my hair grows awfully fast!'

"You've cut off your hair?" he stammered; "cut it off and sold it!'" "But I'm me without my hair, ain't I, Jim?" Her voice broke. "Your hair is gone?" said Jim, almost with an air of idiocy. "You needn't look for it," said Della, "it's sold, I tell you—sold and gone too. It's Christmas Eve, boy. Be good to me for it went to buy you a really, truly Christmas present." But before she had time to show it, Jim had drawn a package from his overcoat pocket and threw it upon the table.

(Read) " 'Don't make any mistake, Dell,' he said, 'about me. I don't think there's anything in the way of a haircut or a shave or a shampoo that could make me like my girl any less. But if you'll unwrap that package, you may see why you had me going for awhile at first'."

Della's fingers were nimble. An ecstatic scream of joy was followed by heartbreaking sobbing. There lay the combs. Della had worshipped them for long in a Broadway window, had craved and yearned over them without the least hope—the beautiful, jewelled, tortoise-shell combs—there they were—just the things to wear in the beautiful vanished hair. She hugged them to her bosom and cried and laughed together. Then she leaped up like a little singed cat and cried, "Oh, oh!" She held up Jim's gift and the metal seemed to flash her own bright and ardent spirit. "Give me your watch, Jim. I want to see how it looks on it!" Down tumbled Jim on the couch. He put his hands behind his head and smiled.

(Read) " 'Dell,' said he, 'let's put our Christmas presents away and keep 'em a while. They're too nice to use just at present. I sold the watch to get the money to buy your combs. And now suppose you put the chops on."

The parts selected for reading are usually those which reflect the characters or situation so well as to make paraphrase impossible. O. Henry tempts the story-teller to a greater degree of quotation than do most other authors.

A very simple method of arranging the story is as follows:

I. Who? The characters:

A. Major

B. Minor
C. Relation

II. Where? Description of setting.

III. When? Statement of time and circumstances.

IV. Development of action.

V. Conclusion.

The order may be varied in accordance with the method of the story itself.

A list of short stories suitable for use by the "reading-telling" method.

The Clocks of Rondaine	Stockton	Fanciful Tales
The Christmas Truants	Stockton	Fanciful Tales
The Lady or the Tiger?	Stockton	The Lady or The Tiger
At the Sign of the Savage	Wm. D. Howells	A Fearful Responsibility
The Green Door	O. Henry	Four Million
The Service of Love	O. Henry	Four Million
The Revolt of Mother	Mary E. W. Freeman	Great Modern American Short Stories, Ed. by Howells
The Copy Cat	Mary E. W. Freeman	The Copy Cat and other Stories
Sally	Margaret Deland	Old Chester Tales
A Little Kansas Leaven	Margaret Deland	Camp Fires in France
Wee Willie Winkie	Kipling	Kipling's Works
Goliath	T. B. Aldrich	Two Bites of a Cherry
A Gentleman of Japan and a Lady	John L. Long	Mme. Butterfly
My Lord the Baby	Tagore	
The Necklace	De Maupassant	
The Tenor	H. C. Bunner	Short Sixes
Our Aromatic Uncle	H. C. Bunner	Great Modern American Short Stories, Ed. by W. D. Howells
Xenobia's Infidelity	H. C. Bunner	Readings from Literature, Halleck & Barbour
The Bishop's Silence	Mary R. S. Andrews	The Militants
A Messenger	Mary R. S. Andrews	The Militants
The Grasshopper and the Ant	Margaret Deland	Dr. Lavendar's People
The Winning of Lucinda	L. N. Montgomery	Chronicles of Avonlea
Love Me, Love My Dog	Richard H. Davis	Van Bibber and Others
The Monkey's Paw	W. W. Jacobs	Modern Short Stories—Ashmun
A Nest Egg	James Whitcomb Riley	Short Stories forEnglish Courses by Rose N. J. Mickels (Scribner's Sons)
The Jumping Frog	Mark Twain	Modern American Short

		Stories, Ed. by W. D. Howells
Marse Chan	Thomas Nelson Page	Short stories from English Courses—Mikels
A Fatal Success	Henry Van Dyke	Fisherman's Luck
A Brave Heart	Henry Van Dyke	The Ruling Passion
His Other Engagement	Henry Van Dyke	Days Off
My Double and How He Undid Me	Ed. Everett Hale	Great Modern American Short Stories (Boni & Liveright)
Jean-ah Papuelin	G. W. Cable	Old Creole Days
The Right Promethean Fire	Geo. Madden Martin	"Americans All" (B. A. Heydrick)
His Mother's Son	Edna Ferber	"Americans All"
Bitter Sweet	Fannie Hurst	"Americans All"

STORIES FOR THE CLASS-ROOM—A BIBLIOGRAPHY*

EVA RICHARDSON
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BURT, MARY E., *Poems That Every Child Should Know.* Doubleday, Page and Co., New York, 1912. (This book has many poems for children above second grade also.)

1. The Year's at the Spring. p. 6 (see Turpin later in this list)
2. The Days of the Month. p. 7
3. My Shadow. p. 9 (see McMurray and Cook, and Stevenson later in the list)
4. Wynken, Blynken, and Nod. p. 16 (see Burt and Cable, and McMurry and Cook)
5. The Duel. p. 18 (see Burt and Cable)
6. A Visit from St. Nicholas. p. 29—read to children (see McMurry and Cook, No. 10)
7. The Star-Spangled Banner. p. 31 (song)
8. America. p. 228 (song)

Burt, Mary E., and Cable, Mary B., *The Eugene Field Book,* Charles Scribner Sons, New York, 1910.

1. The Duel. p. 3—commit (see Burt's *Poems That Every Child Should Know*)
2. Wynken, Blynken, and Nod—read to children (see McMurry and Cook and Burt's *Poems That Every Child Should Know*)

Lansing, Marion Florence, *Rhymes and Stories,* Ginn and Co., Chicago, 1907.

1. One Misty,Moisty Morning. p. 11—commit for rainy days
2. The Three Kittens. p. 39

*This bibliography was developed from an extended survey of material suitable for the teacher desiring stories for the Grades or the juvenile audience. The compiler has had much experience with story narration for the juvenile which adds value to the selection. The work was supervised by the Department of Speech, the University of Iowa.—G. N. MERRY.

3. Blow, Wind, Blow, and Go, Mill, Go. p. 16
4. Simple Simon. p. 75
5. Old Mother Hubbard. p. 66
6. Little Bo-Peep. p. 61
7. Little Boy Blue. p. 13

McMurray, Lida Brown and Cook, Agnes, *Songs of the Tree-Top and Meadow,* Public-School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill., 1899. (An excellent little book.)

1. How the Leaves Came Down. p. 16 (read to children)
2. Giving Thanks. p. 17 (Thanksgiving poem)
3. The Cat-tails. p. 19
4. The Magic Vine. p. 19 (Thanksgiving poem)
5. November. p. 20
6. Kris Kringle's Travels. p. 26 (Christmas)
7. Jack Frost. p. 28
8. Santa Claus' Petition. p. 33 (Christmas)
9. Hang Up the Baby's Stocking. p. 35 (Christmas)
10. A Visit from Santa Claus. p. 35 (Christmas—see Burt, No. 6)
11. Christmas Song. p. 42 (Christmas)
12. The Icicle. p. 44
13. Kris Kringle. p. 46
14. I Love You, Mother. p. 51
15. Wynken, Blynken, and Nod. p. 54 (see Burt's Poems and Burt and Cable)
16. The Fairy Sisters. p. 56 (moral instruction)
17. If I Knew. p. 59
18. The Indian Mother's Lullaby. p. 61 (for second grade)
19. Lady Moon. p. 78
20. Strength. p. 78 (moral instruction)
21. Little by Little. p. 80
22. Flowers and Weeds. p. 80 (moral instruction)
23. My Shadow. p. 82 (see Stevenson and Burt)
24. The Cow. p. 86 (see Stevenson)
25. Windy Nights. p. 95 (see Stevenson and Turpin)
26. Pussy Willows. p. 100 (read when pussy willows first appear)
27. Remorse. p. 101 (moral instruction—killing of robin)
28. Sir Robin. p. 106

29. The Seed. p. 110
30. The Secret. p. 111
31. Somebody's knocking. p. 112
32. Daisies. p. 114 (see Sherman No. 1)
33. The Wind. p. 122
34. The Chickens. p. 122
35. Apple Blossoms. p. 125
36. The Woodpecker. p. 130
37. What Robin Told. p. 131
38. Who Likes the Rain. p. 144
39. Frogs at School. p. 148
40. The Swing. p. 157 (See Stevenson)
41. The Spider and the Boy. p. 158

Sherman, Frank Dempster, *Little Folk Lyrics*, Houghton Mifflin Co., New York, 1897.

1. Daisies. p. 19 (good) (see McMurray and Cook No. 32)
2. Flying Kite. p. 57
3. The Shadows. p. 67 (read to children)
4. The Four Winds. p. 45
5. Blossoms. p. 17
6. Smiles and Tears. p. 75

Stevenson, R. L., *A Child's Garden of Verses*, Rand, McNally and Co., Chicago, 1902.

1. Bed in Summer. p. 13 (see Turpin)
2. My Shadow. p. 17 (see McMurray and Cook and Burt)
3. Time to Rise. p. 20 (tardy song)
4. Windy Nights. p. 22 (see Turpin)
5. Whole Duty of Children. p. 27 (see Turpin)
6. A Good Play. p. 32—read to children—(see Turpin)
7. The Land of Counterpane. p. 33
8. A Good Boy. p. 34 (see Turpin)
9. The Swing. p.37 (see McMurray and Cook)
10. The Wind. p. 32 (see McMurray and Cook)
11. The Cow. p. 56
12. My Bed Is a Boat. p. 58
13. The Sun's Travels. p. 69

Turpin, Edna H., *A Child's Book of Poetry*, Maynard, Merrill and Co., New York, 1901.

1. Some Little Mice. p. 5 (a song game)
2. Bobby Shafto. p. 7 (song)
3. Bed In Summer. p. 17 (see Stevenson)
4. Little Birdie. (Alfred Tennyson's)
5. Three Little Kittens. p. 26 (see Lansing)
6. Mother Hubbard and Her Dog. p. 30—read to children
7. The Wind. p. 43 (see Stevenson)
8. Whole Duty of Children. p. 60 (see Stevenson)
9. A Good Boy. p. 67 (see Stevenson)
10. The Year's At The Spring. p. 69—Browning (see Burt's Poems Every Child should Know)
11. A Good Play. p. 69—read to children (see Stevenson)
12. How the Leaves Came Down. p. 91 (read to children)
13. Windy Nights. p. 101 see Stevenson)
14. A visit from St. Nicholas. p. 137 (read to children)

Cary, Alice and Phoebe, *Ballads for Little Folk*, Houghton-Mifflin Co., New York, 1873. (Poems for second grade.)

1. Recipe for an Appetite. p. 67
2. A Lesson for Mercy. p. 67
3. Peter Grey. P. 84
4. The Chicken's Mistake. p. 134
5. Suppose. p. 148
6. A Legend of the Northland. p. 150
7. Obedience. p. 157
8. They Didn't Think. p. 169

Bailey, Carolyn S., *For the Children's Hour Book II*, Milton Bradley Co., Springfield, Mass., 1917.

1. What Kept the New Chimney Waiting? p. 7 (Teaches Protection of Birds. (see Bailey and Lewis No. 2)
2. How the Home Was Built. p. 10 (Good material to use while teaching home life. (See Bailey and Lewis, and Lindsay's Mother Stories)
3. Apple-Seed John. p. 48 (service for others)
4. Making the Best of it. p. 62—A good story for stormy days. (See Bailey and Lewis No. 7)
5. Granfather's Penny. p. 67 (When there was no matches. (See Bailey and Lewis)

6. How Cedric Became a Knight. p. 93 (moral instruction. (See Bailey and Lewis)
7. A Little Lad of Long Ago. p. 101 (story of Lincoln borrowing a book)
8. Mr. Easter Rabbit. p. 117 (excellent for Easter time)
9. The Story of the Little Mouse. p. 122 (See Town and Country Mouse in Scudder and in Bailey and Lewis)
10. The Ugly Duckling. p. 138—fairy tale. (See Bailey and Lewis No. 9.)

Bailey, Carolyn S., *For the Story Teller,* Milton Bradley Co., Springfield, Mass., 1914. (A book with helpful suggestions for the story teller.)

1. The Cap that Mother Made. (fairy tale)
2. The Three Cakes. p. 35 (moral instruction)
3. Little In-a-Minute. p. 76 (moral instruction)
4. Old Man Rabbit's Thanksgiving Dinner. p. 92 (Thanksgiving)
5. The Selfish Giant. p. 122 (moral instruction)
6. The Little Rabbit Who Wanted Red Wings. p. 185 (folk-tale)

Bailey, Carolyn S., *Stories and Rhymes for a Child,* Milton Bradley Co., Springfield, Mass., 1916.

1. Billy Boy's Garden. p. 1
2. How Robin's Kite Learned to Fly. p. 20
3. The Three Rabbits. p. 28 (moral instruction)
4. The Little Red Apples. p. 39
5. The Lame Squirrel's Thanksgiving. p. 79 (see Thanksgiving list)
6. The Doll's Christmas. p. 90
7. The Little Green Elf's Christmas. p. 98
8. The Little Prince. p. 107
9. A True Fairy Tale. p. 127
10. The Little Boy Who Wanted to Be a Soldier. p. 136
11. A Poem "Grandmother." p. 143 (read to children)
12. Grandfather's Penny. p. 173 (see Bailey and Lewis and Bailey's *For the Children's Hour*)

Bailey, Carolyn S., *Tell Me Another Story,* Milton Bradley Co., Springfield, Mass., 1918.

1. The Boy Who Wanted a Castle. p. 10 (tell when teaching home life)
2. The Playmates. p. 15
3. The Wonder Shoes. p. 52
4. How Primrose Went to the Party. p. 63 (moral instruction —kindness)
5. The Prince Who Wasn't Hungry. p. 67 (proper food)
6. The Top That Could Sing. p. 80 (making folks happy)
7. The Holiday. p. 91 (work of the hour—tell when teaching how to tell time)
8. The Goose Who Tried to Keep the Summer. p. 146 (birds going south—story for autumn)
9. The King's Thanksgiving. p. 157 (excellent Thanksgiving story)
10. The Valentine Box. p. 206 (very good valentine story)
11. Why the Dove is On Our Valentine. p. 213
12. The Song of the Spring. p. 219
13. The Camel and the Pig. p. 295 (tall and short fable)

Bailey, Carolyn, and Lewis, Clara, *For the Children's Hour,* Milton Bradley Co., Springfield, Mass., 1913.

1. How the Home was Built. p. 39 (use when teaching home life. See Lindsay's Mother Stories and Bailey's *For the Children's Hour Book II*)
2. What Kept the New Chimney Waiting? p. 42 (teaches bird protection. See Bailey's *For the Children's Hour Book II*)
3. The Tale of the Littlest Mouse. p. 45 (see Bailey's Book II No. 9 and Scudder No. 13)
4. The Sheep and the Pig. p. 50 (building a house)
5. The Big Red Apple. p. 58 (autumn story)
6. Do What You Can. p. 67 (how the raindrop helped moral instruction)
7. Making the Best of It. p. 69 (see Bailey Book II)
8. Why the Bear Wears a Stripe Down its Back. p. 72 (nature myth)
9. The Ugly Duckling. p. 67 (fairy tale: see Bailey Book II)
10. The Elves and the Shoemaker. p. 100 (fable)
11. The Stone In the Road. p. 102 (moral instruction)

12. Pippa Passes. p. 104 (moral instruction—grade II)
13. The Anxious Leaf. p. 120 (autumn)
14. What Broke the China Pitcher? p. 129 (moral instruction—tell when freezing weather first comes)
15. The Legend of the Dipper. p. 132 (moral instruction)
16. Grandfather's Penny. p. 152 (when there were no matches. See Bailey's *For the Children's Hour Book II*)
17. Little Half-Chick. p. 152 (moral instruction. See Bryant's *Best Stories to Tell*)
18. The Wind and The Sun. p. 155—dramatize (fable—see Jacobs and Scudder)
19. Tom the Water Baby. p. 163 (Chimney Sweeps)
20. Latona and the Rustics. p. 167 (nature myth-story of the first frogs)
21. How We First Came to Have Umbrellas. p. 168
22. The Legend of the Woodpecker. p. 177 (nature myth)
23. How the Robin's Breast Became Red. p. 179
24. The Oak Tree and the Linden. p. 185 (nature myth)
25. The Little Pine Tree Who Wished for New Leaves. p. 188
26. The Legend of the Dandelion. p. 195 (Spring story)
27. The Story of Clytie. p. 197 (nature myth)
28. Goldenrod and Aster. p. 199 (nature myth)
29. The Little Brown Bowl. p. 200
30. The Story of Arachne. p. 204 (nature myth)
31. Cupid and Psyche. p. 208
32. Mother Spider. p. 212 (nature myth)
33. The Little Girl Who Would Not Work. p. 215
34. Who Ate the Dolly's Dinner? p. 225 (Thanksgiving story)
35. A Great Surprise. p. 227 (moral instruction; scowls)
36. The Good Shepherd. p. 231
37. The Legend of St. Christopher. p. 233 (moral instruction)
38. The Legend of the Christmas Tree. p. 237
39. Little Cosette. p. 244 (Christmas story—adapted from Victor Hugo's *Les Miserables*)
40. Tiny Tim. p. 248 (Christmas story—adapted from Dicken's *Christmas Carol*)
41. Mrs. Santa Claus. p. 251
42. St. George and the Dragon. p. 262 (moral instruction)

43. A Little Lad of Long Ago. (Story of Lincoln. See Bailey's *For the Children's Hour Book II*)
44. How Cedric Became a Knight. p. 271 (see Bailey's *For the Chidren's Hour Book II*)
45. Herr Oster Hase. p. 81 (Easter story)
46. Chicken Little. p. 297 (folk tale)
47. The Living Alarm Clock. p. 301 (a rooster)
48. The Three Bears. p. 303 (fairy tale. See Baldwin, Lansing, and Bryant's *How to Tell Stories*)
49. The Story of the Three Little Pigs. p. 306 (see Lansing No. 6) Fables in this book.
50. The Ant and the Grasshopper. p. 328 (see Scudder and Jacobs)
51. The Ant and the Dove. p. 329
52. The Crow and the Pitcher. p. 329 (see Scudder and Jacobs)
53. The Gourd and the Pine Tree. p. 330
54. The Crow and the Fox. p. 331
55. The Dog and His Shadow. p. 332 (see Scudder No. 9 Jacobs No. 1)

Baldwin, James, *Fairy Stories and Fables,* American Book Co., Chicago, 1895.

1. Little Tuppens (choking) p. 5
2. The Dog and the Wolf. p. 10 (fable: see Scudder)
3. The Mice and the Cat. (belling the cat—fable: see Jacobs and Scudder)
4. The Three Bears. p. 13 (see Lansing, Bailey and Lewis, and Bryant's *How to Tell Stories*)
5. The Deer. p. 18
6. The Wise Coat. p. 19
7. The Three Goats Named Bruse. p. 20 (Three Bill goats gruff—fine to dramatize)
8. The Hare and the Tortoise. p. 25—dramatize (see Scudder and Jacobs)
9. The Three Pigs.
10. The Dog and the Shadow. p. 37 (see Scudder, Jacobs, and Bailey and Lewis)
11. Little Red Riding Hood. p. 38 (fable: see Lansing)
12. The Quarrel. p. 45

13. The Milkmaid and Her Pail. p. 46—fable (see Jacobs)
14. The Story of Tom Thumb. p. 47
15. The Fox Who Lost His Tail. p. 58
16. The Wind and the Sun. p. 59—fable (see Jacobs and Scudder)
17. The Fox Outwitted. p. 73
18. The Old Lion. p. 83
19. A Wise Crow. p. 84 (see Bailey and Lewis No. 52)
20. Two Foolish Birds. p. 94
21. The Dog in the Manger. p. 107
22. The Mouse and the Lion. p. 120—fable (see Scudder and Jacobs)
23. The Fox and the Crane. p. 121 (eating together—fable)
24. The Foolish Tortoise. p. 135
25. The Ant and the Cricket. p. 136 (fable)
26. The Hares. p. 149
27. The Tree and the Reeds. p. 101
28. The Nest Builders. p. 162
29. The Lark and the Farmer. p. 165—fable (see Scudder)

Bannerman, Helen, *Little Black Sambo*, Frederick A. Stokes Co., New York.

1. The Story of the Three Little Pigs. p. 1
2. The Three Bears. p. 7 (fairy tale)
3. The Old Woman and Her Pig. p. 14 (pig won't go over stile)
4. Raggylug. p. 18 (moral instruction; see Bryant's *How to Tell Stories*)
5. The Pied Piper of Hamelin Town. p. 30 (see Bryant's *How to Tell Stories*)
6. The Firebringer. p. 46
7. The Little Hero of Haarlem. p. 81 (moral instruction)
9. The Gingerbread Man. p. 90
10. The Little Jackals and the Lion. p. 97
11. How Brother Rabbit Fooled the Whale and the Elephant. p. 108 (see Harpers)
12. Little Half-Chick. p. 113—moral instruction (see Bailey and Lewis)
13. Epaminondas and His Auntie. p. 119 (humorous)

14. The Little Jackal and the Alligator. p. 125
15. The Little Fir Tree. p. 134 (Christmas—in a hospital)
16. David and Goliath. p. 173 (Bible)

Bryant, Sara Cone, *How to Tell Stories to Children*, Houghton Mifflin and Co., Chicago, 1905. (A book that every story teller should know.)

1. The Story of the Three Little Pigs. p. 32 (their three different homes; see Baldwin, and Bryant's *How to Tell Stories*)
2. The Three Bears. p. 37—fairy tale (see Lansing)
3. The Old Woman and Her Pig. p. 43 (fairy tale)
4. How We Came to Have Pink Roses. p. 129 (nature myth)
5. Raggylug. p. 130 (see Bryant's *Best Stories to Tell*)
6. Why the Morning Glory Climbs. p. 137 (nature myth)
7. The Big Brother. p. 141—dramatize (see Richarde No. 2)
8. The Pied Piper of Hamelin Town. p. 145 (see Bryant's *Best Stories to Tell*)
9. Why the Evergreen Trees Keep Their Leaves In Winter. p. 153 (nature myth)
10. The Frog and the Ox. p. 167 (see Scudder and Jacobs)
11. The Sailor Man. p. 201 (see Richard's Fables)
12. The little Hero of Haarlem. p. 239 (see Bryant's *Best Stories to Tell*)

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1. How the Rabbit Lost His Tail. p. 15
2. How the Toad Got His Bruises. p. 23
3. How the Tiger Got His Stripes. p. 33
4. Why the Lamb is Meek. p. 47
5. Why the Tiger and the Stag Fear Each Other. p. 61
6. How the Monkey Got a Drink When He Was Thirsty. p. 105
7. How the Monkey and the Goat Earned Their Reputation. p. 95
8. Why the Bananas Belong to the Monkey. p. 123

Grimm's Fairy Tales, The Macmillan Co., New York, 1911.

1. King Grisly-Beard. p. 33
2. The Traveling Musicians. p. 213—fable (see Scudder)
3. The Elves and the Shoemaker. p. 307—fable (see Scudder

and Bailey, and Lewis)

4. Cinderella. p. 103 (second grade)

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1. How the Elephant and the Whale Were Tricked. p. 21 (see Bryant's *Best Stories to Tell,* No. II)
2. The Selfish Giant. p. 87 (Easter story. See Wilde's *Fairy Tales*)
3. The Fate of Echo. p. 103 (second grade)
4. The Little Rabbit Who Wanted Red Wings. p. 125
5. The Two Frogs. p. 161
6. How the Animals Secured Furs. p. 187

Kipling, Rudyard, *Just So Stories,* Doubleday, Page Co., Garden City, N. Y., 1911.

1. The Cat That Walked by Himself. p. 187

Lansing, Marion Florence, *Rhymes and Stories,* Ginn and Co., Chicago, 1917.

1. The Little Red Hen and the Grain of Wheat. p. 82
2. Three Billy Goats Gruff. p. 92 (fine to dramatize)
3. Chicken-Little. p. 100 (folk tale)
4. The Three Bears. p. 105 (see Bryant's *How to Tell Stories*)
5. Another Little Red Hen. p. 116 (dramatize)
6. The Story of the Three Little Pigs. p. 120 (see Bailey and Lewis No. 49)
7. The Pancake. p. 128
8. The Fox as Herdsman. p. 137
9. Lazy Jack. p. 141
10. Little Red Riding Hood. p. 147—fable (see Baldwin)
11. Little One Eye, Little Two Eyes, and Little Three Eyes. p. 157—(fable)

Lindsay, Maud, *Mother Stories,* Milton Bradley Co., Springfield, Mass., 1905.

1. The Little Gray Pony. p. 39
2. How the Home Was Built. p. 74. Good material when teaching home life. (See Bailey's *For the Children's Hour Book II,* and Bailey and Lewis)

3. The Open Gate. p. 67
4. The Search for a Good Child. p. 123 (moral instruction)

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1. The Little Pig. p. 139
2. The White Dove. p. 145—good (moral instructions)

Mabie, Hamilton W., *Fairy Tales Every Child Should Know,* Crosset and Dunlay, Publishers, New York, 1905.

1. Blue Beard. p. 204
2. The Ugly Duckling. p. 281—long (see Bailey and Lewis, and Bailey's Book II)

Richards, Laura E., *The Golden Windows,* Little, Brown and Co., Boston, 1917.

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2. Pig Brother. p. 35. Fine to dramatize. (See Bryant's *How to Tell Stories.*)
3. The Hill.
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Seton, E. T., *Krag and Johnny Bear,* Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York, 1904.

1. Johnny Bear. p. 95 (humorous)

Thomsen, Gudrun, Thorne, *East o' the Sun and West o' the Moon,* Row, Peterson and Co., Chicago, 1912.

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Wiggins, Kate Douglas, and Smith, Nora A., *Tales,* Houghton Mifflin and Co., New York, 1899.

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Wilde, Oscar, *Fairy Tales,* G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1913.

1. The Selfish Giant.—Easter story (see Harper)

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Jacobs, Joseph, *The Fables of Aesop,* Macmillan and Co., St. Martin's Street, London, 1914.

1. The Dog and His Shadow. p. 7 (see Scudder, Bailey and Lewis, and Baldwin)
2. The Town and the Country Mouse. p. 15 (see Scudder, Bailey and Lewis, and Bailey Book II)
3. The Fox and the Crow. p. 19 (see Bailey and Lewis)
4. The Lion and the Mouse. p. 26 (see Scudder and Baldwin)
5. The Fox and the Stork. p. 50 (see Scudder)
6. The Frog and the Ox. p. 57 (see Scudder, and Bryant's *How to Tell Stories*)
7. The Fox and the Grapes. p. 76 (see Scudder)
8. The Ant and the Grasshopper. p. 86 (see Scudder, and Bailey and Lewis)
9. The Tree and the Reed. p. 88
10. The Fox and the Cat. p. 91
11. The Shepherd's Boy. p. 102
12. The Crow and the Pitcher. p. 129 (see Scudder, and Bailey and Lewis)
13. The Goose With the Golden Eggs. p. 134
14. The Wind and the Sun. p. 142 (see Scudder, and Bailey and Lewis)
15. The Man, the Boy and the Donkey. p. 149
16. Belling the Cat. p. 159 (see Scudder and Ells)
17. The Hare and the Tortoise. p. 162 (see Scudder and Baldwin)
18. The Lion, the Fox, and the Beasts, p. 174
19. The Milkmaid and Her Pail. p. 183 (see Baldwin)

Scudder, Horace E., *Fables and Folk Stories,* Houghton Mifflin Co., Chicago, 1899.

1. Little One Eye, Little Two Eyes, and Little Three Eyes. p. 13 (see Lansing)
2. The Wind and the Sun.—dramatize (see Jacobs and Bailey and Lewis)
3. Little Red Riding Hood. p. 25 (see Lansing)
4. The Crow and the Pitcher. p. 28 (see Jacobs, and Bailey and Lewis)

5. The Elves and the Shoemaker. p. 29 (see Grimm, Bailey and Lewis)
6. The Lion and the Mouse. p. 41 (see Baldwin)
7. The Dog and the Wolf. p. 43
8. The Fox and the Grapes. p. 66 (see Jacobs)
9. The Dog and His Image. p. 67 (see Bailey, Lewis and Baldwin)
10. Belling the Cat. p. 78 (see Jacobs and Ells)
11. The Frog and the Ox. p. 78 (see Jacobs, and Bryant's *How to Tell Stories*)
12. The Tortoise and the Hare. p. 83 (see Jacobs and Baldwin)
13. The Country Mouse and the Town Mouse. p. 84 (see Jacobs, Bailey and Lewis and Bailey Book II.)
14. The Fox and the Stork. p. 104—modes of eating (see Jacobs)
15. The Ant and the Grasshopper. p. 105 (see Jacobs, Bailey and Lewis)
16. The Lion and the Fox. p. 106
17. Dick Whittington and His Cat. p. 109 (second grade story)
18. The Lark and Her Young Ones. p. 121
19. The Traveling Musicians. p. 172 (see Grimm)

For other Fables refer to:

Bailey and Lewis.

1. The Ant and the Grasshopper. No. 50
2. The Ant and the Dove. No. 51
3. The Crow and the Pitcher. No. 52
4. The Gourd and the Pine Tree. No. 53
5. The Crow and the Fox. No. 54
6. The Dog and His Shadow. No. 55

Bailey's *Tell Me Another Story.*

1. The Camel and the Pig. No. 13

Nature Myths

Cooke, Flora J., *Nature Myths and Stories,* A. Flanagan Co., Chicago, 1913.

1. Clytie. (see Bailey and Lewis No. 27)
2. Arachne.—origin of spider family (see Bailey and Lewis No. 30)

3. How the Robin's Breast Became Red. (see Bailey and Lewis No. 23)
4. The Red-Headed Woodpecker.—origin (see Bailey and Lewis N. 22)
5. The Donkey and the Salt.

Holbrook, Florence, *The Book of Nature Myths,* Houghton Mifflin Co., Chicago, 1902.

1. Why the Magpie's Nest Is Not Well Built. p. 31
2. Why the Tail of the Fox Has a White Tip. p. 60
3. Why the Bear Has a Short Tail. p. 72 (see Thompson's *East o' the Sun and West o' the Moon*)
4. Why the Wren flies Close to the Earth. p. 76
5. The Story of the Bees and the Flies. p. 93
6. Why the Evergreen Trees Never Lose Their Leaves. p. 118 (see Bryant's *How to Tell Stories*)

For other Nature Myths refer to:

Bryant's *How to Tell Stories.*

1. How We Came to Have Pink Roses. No. 129
2. Why the Morning Glory Climbs. No. 6

Bailey and Lewis *For the Children's Hour.*

1. Why the Bear Wears a Stripe Down Its Back. No. 8
2. Latona and the Rustics. No. 20—the first frogs
3. Legend of the Woodpecker. No. 22
4. The Oak Tree and the Linden. No. 24
5. Goldenrod and Aster. No. 28
6. Mother Spider. No. 32

Stories for Moral Instruction

Chesterton, Alice M., *The Garden of Childhood,* (Moral Instruction Series) Thomas Nelson and Sons, New York.

1. The Secret of the Golden Castle. p. 1
2. The Big Home and the Little Home. p. 20
3. The Messenger of Santa Claus. p. 35
4. The Garden of Forget-me-nots. p. 42 (please and thank you)
5. The Caterpillar's Advice. p. 92 (for children who cry)
6. Donald's Crutches. p. 146 to arouse sympathy for crippled persons.

Snyder, F., *Rhymes for Kindly Children,* Modern Mother Goose Jingles, P. F. Volland and Co., Chicago, 1916. A good book of short poems for teaching manners to first grade and kindergarten children.

1. Stingy Archibald
2. A Question
3. Cry Baby
4. The Tired Girl
5. The Courteous Favorite
6. Who Knows?
7. The New Bonnet
8. Slow-Poke and Dilly-Dally
9. The Careless Nail-Biter
10. The Thoughtless Neighbor
11. The Little Gentleman
12. The Orderly Twins
13. Out Walking
14. Shameless Abel

For other stories for Moral Instruction see:

Bailey's *For the Story Teller.*

1. The Selfish Giant. No. 5
2. The Three Cakes. No. 2
3. Little In-a-minute. No. 3

Bailey's *Tell Me Another Story.*

1. How Primrose Went to the Party. No. 4—kindness

Bailey and Lewis

1. Do What You Can. No. 6
2. Making the Best of It. p. 7 (see Bailey's *For the Children's Hour Book II,* No. 4)
3. The Stone in the Road. No. 11
4. Pippa Passes. No. 12
5. What Broke the China Pitcher? No. 14
6. The Legend of the Dipper. No. 15
7. A Great Surprise. No. 35—scowls
8. The Legend of St. Christopher. No. 37
9. St. George and the Dragon. No. 42
10. How Cedric Became a Knight. No. 44 (see Bailey's *For the Children's Hour Book II*)

II. Little Half-Chick. No. 17

Bryant's *Best Stories to Tell Children.*

1. Raggylug. No. 4 (see Bailey's *How to Tell Stories*)
2. The Little Hero of Haarlem. No. 7 (see Bryant's *How to Tell Stories*)
3. Little Half-Chick. No. 12 (see Bailey and Lewis)

Lindsay's *Mother Stories.*

1. The Search for a Good Child. No. 4

See Poems—Cary's.

McMurry and Cook (Poems)

1. The Fairy Sisters. No. 16
2. Strength. No. 20
3. Flowers and Weeds. No. 22
4. Remorse No. 27

Stories for Special Days

Thanksgiving

See Bailey's *For the Story Teller*

1. Old Man Rabbit's Thanksgiving Dinner. No. 4

Bailey's *Stories and Rhymes.*

1. The Lame Squirrel's Thanksgiving. No. 5

Bailey's *Tell Me Another Story.*

1. The King's Thanksgiving. No. 9

Bailey and Lewis.

1. Who Ate the Dolly's Dinner? No. 34

McMurry and Cook—*Poems.*

1. Giving Thanks. No. 2
2. The Magic Vine. No. 4

Wiggin and Smith.

1. The First Thanksgiving. No. 3

Christmas

Skinner, Ada M., *Little Folks Christmas Stories and Plays,* Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago, 1915.

1. Christmas at the Hollow Tree Inn. p. 3 (Mr. Dog plays Santa Claus)
2. The Doll's Wish. p. 43.—read to children

3. The Christmas Spruce Tree. p. 48—good (Norwegian legend)
4. The Stars and the Child

For other Christmas Stories see:

Chesterson (Moral Instruction Series)

1. The Messenger of Santa Claus. No. 3

Bailey's *Stories and Rhymes.*

1. The Doll's Christmas. No.6
2. The Little Green Elf's Christmas. No. 7

Bailey and Lewis.

1. The Legend of the Christmas Tree. No. 38
2. Little Cozette. No. 39
3. Tiny Tim. No. 40
4. Mrs. Santa Claus. No. 41

Bryant's *Best Stories to Tell.*

1. The Little Fir Tree. No. 15

McMurry and Cook—*Poems.*

1. Kris Kringle's Travels. No. 6
2. Santa Claus' Petition. No. 8
3. Hang Up the Baby's Stocking. No. 9
4. A Visit from Santa Claus. No. 10
5. Kris Kringle. No. 13

Turpin.

1. A Visit from St. Nicholas. No. 14

Wiggins and Smith.

1. The Christmas Story. No. 2
2. Piccola. No. 4

Valentine Day

See Bailey's *Tell Me Another Story.*

1. The Valentine Box. No. 10
2. Why the Dove is on Our Valentines. No. 11

Easter

See Bailey's *For the Children's Hour Book II.*

1. Mr. Easter Rabbit. No. 8

Bailey and Lewis.

1. Herr Oster Hase. No. 45

A BRIEF REVIEW OF THE CHIEF PERIODS IN THE HISTORY OF ORATORY

CHARLES A. FRITZ

Cambridge, Massachusetts

The Earliest Beginnings of Oratory—The Individualistic Period

A DIFFICULT task presents itself to anyone who attempts to find the earliest traces of oratory, because the beginnings of the art are so lost in the midst of antiquity and tradition as to be almost unknown to the student of today. What faint traces of eloquence we do find are so imbedded in general literature as to be almost obscured.

Every tribe and nation has passed through the same stages in the development of its literature and oratory. Thus by observing the characteristics of the first oratory found in the development of a tribe, we may arrive at a conclusion as to the character of the first oratory of the human race. In the literature which treats of the life of primitive man we can see the character of their oratory. Such literature is the Iliad, in which many speeches are found, all bearing the same characteristics. Here we find the oratory of the hero and the conqueror, direct and powerful in its appeal and ornate in its language. But this can hardly be called the very earliest oratory; for writing is preceded by speech, and before anything at all is written the people are incited to war or inspired to hero-worship by the oratory of the hero or chief. Such oratory is found in wandering tribes; but as the habits of the tribes differ and as the conditions of a country differ, so must the kinds of speech differ. In one tribe the speech may be ornate and poetic; in another tribe it may be plain and simple. One trait of speech, however, is common to all tribes in their primitive period, and this is the spirit of boasting. The chief may return home from a conquering expedition, and in a speech before his tribe boast of his prowess and exploits, and hold up the spoils of war where all may see.

The very first trace of oratory which has been found is that

which legend ascribes to Methusaleh's son, Lamech, where he says:

"Adah and Zillah hear my voice;
Ye wives of Lamech, harken unto my speech;
For I slay a man for wounding me,
And a young man for bruising me.
If Cain shall be avenged sevenfold,
Truly Lamech shall be avenged seventy and seven-fold."

In this little speech are found all the elements which are considered as making up the art of oratory. It is direct in its purpose and aims to bring about its effect by repetition and by citing historical precedent.

In the Iliad and Odyssey and in the history of Herodotus are found many examples of this early type of oratory, and in all of these is the bragging about heroic deeds or the rousing of ardor for warlike deeds. This speech was known as the "war harangue". In the histories of Herodotus and Thucydides, along with plain narration of events will be found the speeches of generals and counselors. In these speeches some general addresses his soldiers or the assembly on some important issue of war. The history of the people of Israel contains many examples of speech, mainly the speeches of the great lawgiver to his followers.

When we examine all these speeches we find that they possess those qualities which are attributed to primitive oratory. They are crude in form and unadorned in language. They are direct in purpose and often accomplish as great results as the oratory of a later period.

This primitive oratory was all without method. The speech flowed spontaneously from the lips of the speaker without any attempt to form a logical plan. The speaker gave expression to his sentiments in the shortest way possible, except in such tribes where language tended to become ornate. But in general the speech was unadorned. The quality, however, that was common to all primitive speech, was, as we have mentioned, the spirit of boasting, and this is in agreement with the spirit of the individualistic period which comes first in the life of a people.

The Formulative Period in Oratory

Oratory closely follows the history of a nation, and is likewise shaped by the manner of life of its people. The early life of a

people is individualistic, and the early oratory of that people is individualistic likewise. Each man speaks for himself alone; he lauds himself and boasts of his prowess. But when that people is more advanced in civilization, it begins to tend toward a point where each man works for his fellow-man. The life of every people develops from the entirely individualistic stage to that ideal stage of social life where each man's life is given to the service of his brother. No people has yet reached that stage, but all tend toward it. The oratory of a people develops in the same way, from the entirely individualistic to the ideally fraternalistic. In the individualistic period oratory consists of the boasting of men who have won honors in war. But this is a low form of oratory. The highest oratory only begins when the fraternalistic age in the life of a nation begins.

In our study of the oratory of the period which succeeds the individualistic we must look to the ancient Greeks to furnish our knowledge. In the first light of historical truth we see Empedocles of Sicily standing out as a great representative of the border between the first two periods of oratory. He has gone beyond what we have distinguished as the mere boasting speech to a loftier form of speech; but still his highest ambition was so to use his power as to compel the people to reverence and adore him. After Empedocles there began a distinctively new period in oratory. Th Sicilian people suddenly acquired their liberty; and liberty is always the mother of eloquence. Many estates had been confiscated by their tyrant rulers, and when they were overthrown the original owners began to claim their estates in the courts of law.

They at first pleaded their own cases; and in this practice remains a tendency of the preceding period. But in this there was a great difficulty, for no two men were alike in their skill in speech, and consequently one would have a great advantage. Corax in Syracuse recognizing this difficulty, conceived the idea of setting up a school for instruction in the kind of speech demanded in these courts. He trained each man to plead his own cases before the judge in such a way that he could present the facts in the case and then appeal to the justice of the judge. It is to Corax that we owe the first formulation of the principles of discourse. These principles had, of course, been evolved by practice, but Corax, by observation of the methods of presentation and appeal, summed up the divisions of a discourse as the *proem*, which corresponds to our introduction;

the narration, which is the statement of facts; the *argument*, which is the proving of the proposition; the *subsidiary remarks*, which are included in the argument of our discourse, and the *peroration*.

We now come to another division of this period. Instead of men pleading for themselves, they began to hire men to plead for them. Thus we see a development from the earlier age: first the pleading of men for themselves without training; then the training of men to speak for themselves; then the hiring of men who make a business of pleading. Antiphon is the man who marks this last transition. The great point in his speeches is the argument of *general probability*, and he teaches his pupils to use this. Antiphon trained men who were professional advocates, who made a business of pleading causes for other men.

The man who next claims our attention in this formulative period is Gorgias. His manner of instruction was entirely different from that of the men we have mentioned. In his teaching the great emphasis was placed on diction, and he taught his pupils so to arrange their words and sentences in a rythmical manner that they might greatly move the poetic natures of the Greek people.

Lysias marks the transfer of the teaching of oratory from Sicily to Athens. Here was a man who not only taught men to plead cases and taught them the rules of rhetoric, but who wrote speeches for other men to deliver. Heretofore all the speeches were on the same plan; the educated man delivered precisely the same speech as the ignorant. Lysias departed from this method. He made his speeches conform to the men who were giving them. The ignorant man used plain everyday language, while the educated man used beautiful diction and high sounding words. Lysias recognized four divisions of the discourse: *proem, narration, argument*, and *peroration*. These divisions have marked all the oratory since.

The transition from this period to the next is marked by Isocrates. The men before him had simply taught the elements of the rhetorical address. Isocrates was a man who could build up a great oration of his own. He taught men to speak not merely in the courts, but in the assembly. He was the greatest teacher Greece had ever produced, and pupils came from every quarter. His genius changed the whole art of eloquence from a mere tool in the hands of the advocates to an instrument in the hands of every free man who wished to further the cause of his country.

The Political Period

In our discussion of the preceding period we showed how the principles of oratory were formulated into a system of rhetoric of oratory which has been used by all the orators from that time to this. And indeed these principles must always prevail, for they conform to the laws of the human mind, which are the same through all tribes and races, and through all ages. In the period we are now to study we see these principles of speech applied to the speeches of courts and forum, and we see eloquence perfected to such a degree that its representatives have been studied from that day to this as models of rhetorical and literary style. It has been observed that the oratory of a nation follows its political history, and nowhere is the truth of that statement better shown than in this period. In the age we have just left the government was despotic, and the only chances for the exercise of rhetorical powers was in the courts in the defense of some man's case; but when popular legislation took the place of despotic government, men were given a chance to speak in the assembly and in the forum, and this brought a new class of oratory to the front which we shall choose to call Political Oratory. The oratory of this period may be likened to a great wave that mounts to a towering crest, then quickly falls and disappears. It is true that in the beginning of this wave in Greece we have oratory that must be called forensic rather than political, but as the wave rises higher and higher, the purely political oratory is more evident until at last the marvelous oratory of Demosthenes forms the crest of the wave. But there it breaks and its fall is represented by the rhetorical speech which comes after Demosthenes.

The history of the Political period was peculiarly conducive to the development of great orators. Oratory flourishes best in stirring times. At the end of this period in Greece the Athenian Empire and Athenian character had sunk to their lowest ebb. The people had so degenerated, and their idea of patriotism was so low that when the great lion appeared in the North, they sat in passive stupidity while the greatest orator of the world pleaded with them to rise up in their might and defend their homes and their children. Grecian character was so corrupt that the empire was slowly crumbling to its everlasting destruction.

Not only was the empire crumbling within from the very degeneracy of its people, but on the outside were foes threatening to

destroy the life of Greece at a blow. What a field for the exercise of the art that compels men to think as the speaker thinks, feel as he feels, and act as he wills! Never from that time to this has there occurred in the history of a nation such a combination of conditions that furnish a field for the persuasive powers of man as that which occurred in the history of Greece in the latter part of this period. Not only did this great crisis furnish the opportunity for the orators, but the manner in which the people lived gave abundant chance for the development of oratorical powers. In ancient times there was no newspaper to come to the home twice every day to keep the people informed of the doings of the world; this function was reserved for the orator. In fact, the "orator combined in himself journalist, critic, debater, and preacher". In Greece the highest ambition of any citizen was to become an orator, for it furnished more power and greater fame than any other profession. We read of ancient orators of this period putting themselves through the most severe training for many years in order to prepare themselves for this great profession. It is this severe training that made Demosthenes the man of the hour when the crisis came for him to act. And because eloquence is such a high art the whole system of education of Greece and Rome was adapted to meet the needs of the man who aspired to speak. The principles worked out in the formulative period were assiduously studied to give excellence in rhetorical style, and attention was paid to those studies which aided most in the discussion of public questions.

There were some men, however, who wished to make orators of themselves, who were too poor to avail themselves of the opportunities of education, who consequently relied upon their native ability to win for them, and gave no attention to rhetorical precepts. A man of this class was Andocides, who is looked upon as marking the beginning of this period. In Isaeus we have the representative of a class of orators exactly the opposite of Andocides, for he gave all attention to rhetorical precepts and did not rely sufficiently upon his native ability. The purely political oratory of this period grew directly out of the forensic, for the individual rights which it was the purpose of the forensic orator to defend were the foundation of the larger interests of the state. From the defense of the client the orators proceeded to the defense of political policies. The Political orators of the period secured their training in the schools of

the forensic and defended clients themselves before they went into the broader field of the defense of politics.

The first great Political orator who answered to the call of the age and spoke against extravagance and corruption in the state was Lycurgus. He was followed by Hyperides, a representative of the same class of orators. He, too, had trained himself in intellect and delivery to become an orator, and the same opportunity came to him that came to Lycurgus—that of persuading the people to lay aside the extravagance of the age and live more simply.

We have spoken of the dangers from without that were threatening the existence of the Athenian Empire. It was this condition which furnished the opportunity for the marvelous eloquence of the two men who stand on the crest of our wave and whose names stand as a synonym for the highest in Greek oratory. These men were Aeschines and Demosthenes. The great spectre which confronted Greece in the North was the power of Philip of Macedon. This man had built up such a power that no country seemed too formidable for him to conquer, and now he was contemplating an attack upon Greece. For many years in Athens a man had been preparing himself by the most severe course of training and by use of the educational system of Greece to further the cause of his fellow countrymen in the great arena of political life. This man now came forward in this crisis in his country's affairs, and as a result we have the wonderful orations of Demothenes against Philip. These had such a powerful effect that when the orator had finished the people rose and cried out "Let us fight Philip", and which Philip said almost persuaded him to turn against himself.

On the motion of Ctesiphon the assembly voted to award Demosthenes a crown of gold in return for his services to his country. Aeschines, the other great orator of whom we have spoken, opposed this, and the speeches of these two men on this occasion furnish probably the greatest masterpieces of eloquence that the world has ever seen.

Liberty and eloquence in Greece died with Demosthenes. The conflict and the struggle for freedom ceased, and the Greek cities were merged into the Empire of Alexander. The opportunity for the exercise of political oratory had gone, and we find no more the grand and eloquent orations; only the collection of the principles of rhetoric that were used by the preceding speakers. Everything was

now analytical, and nothing creative. The principles of oratory had been developed to their highest perfection, and Aristotle, the greatest rhetorician of the period, collected them and formulated from them an analytical science of expression founded upon the nature of universal experience.

When we turn to Rome in our study of this period, we find the same conditions that brought forth the great oratory of Greece. Rome was torn by dissensions without and within. The moral life of the people was so low that it was destroying her greatest institutions. In Rome the art of oratory held a higher place than even in Greece. The life and tastes of the Roman people were precisely suited to the development of oratory. Their language was prose. In their educational life they studied History and Jurisprudence with a view to their practical utility in the forum. In Rome we have no Formulative period, for their principles of Rhetoric came directly from Greece. Although in keeping with the character of the people the first attempts at oratory were rather crude, these later developed into the most polished forms. Even though the Roman courts and the Senate had long furnished the opportunity for the practice of eloquence, the first great orator of whom we have record was Cato, the Censor, who lived more than one hundred years after Aristotle. Life at Rome at that time was becoming effeminate and corrupt, and Cato, whom the Roman system of education had trained into an orator, used his wonderful eloquence in trying to stem this tide of luxury.

We have spoken of the dissensions within the Roman Empire at this time. Two orators, the Gracchi, were direct products of this internal strife. For years there had been a struggle between the Patrician and Plebeian factions. Tiberius Gracchus, the elder of the two brothers, consecrated his life to the alleviation of the condition of the poor. He proposed in the Senate a law by which the poor would be given back their own lands which had been confiscated, and supported the law with all the resources of his eloquence. After his death his noble work was taken up by his brother, Caius, who was a still greater orator than Tiberius.

The oratory of Rome reaches its great climax in Cicero, who himself was both critical and creative. The political condition at Rome at this time was such as to bring out the grandest eloquence conceivable. It was a period of profligacy and corruption, chiefly

seen in the administration of foreign possessions. Sicily was governed by Verres, who plundered and ravaged the country, sold his decisions as judge, and demanded from the farmers a large share of their crops. It was at this time that Cicero was coming into prominence, and bringing charges against Verres, he prosecuted him by those wonderful orations known as the Orations against Verres. The crowning achievements of this marvelous orator were his orations against Cataline. Cataline was a ruined spendthrift who planned to burn the capital and murder the chief men. Cicero discovered the plan, and when the evidence had been secured, exposed the conspiracy in the Senate chamber in his First Oration against Cataline.

After Cicero there was nothing in the political life to foster the spirit of oratory. There had been revolution before and conquest of neighboring states, but the conquests and revolutions now ceased, and the Roman Empire settled down to a period of peace. The decline of oratory is seen in the rhetorical schools, where all was critical and nothing creative. The rhetorical schools incorporated into their system all that was best in the principles of Aristotle and Socrates, and added precepts of their own. Indeed, the best representative of these schools is Cicero himself, who wrote several works on the subject of oratory. He emphasized mainly the ethical element in the speaker, and to him the perfect speaker was the perfect man.

This marks the close of the Political period in the history of oratory. We have noticed most of all in our review of this period the fact that oratory flourishes best in the struggle for liberty. We have seen the grandest eloquence of Greece in the period of her struggle for liberty, and its decline when that struggle was over. We have seen the highest oratory of Rome in the time of dissensions, and the decline of oratory when dissension ceases. After the close of this period it seems that eloquence is a lost art, for not until several centuries have elapsed do we find any oratory that in any way approaches the wonderful orations of Demosthenes and Cicero.

The Missionary Period

As we look over the period of oratory directly before us we are struck by the contrast which it bears to the fruitful period we have just left. In the former period some of the greatest orators that the

world has ever seen swayed the hearts and minds of the people, and molded the policies of great nations. In the period we are now to study we see no oratory except the preaching of a few inspired souls who kept the spirit of a new religion alive in the hearts of men during the remainder of Ancient History and during the Middle Ages. It has been said that the spirit of liberty died with Cicero, and this explains in part the dearth of eloquence in the years after him. In Rome the Empire succeeded the Republic; despotism succeeded a free government; no assembly decided matters of public policy, for these were decided by emperor or council, and there was no opportunity for orators to discuss great questions of public policy. In fact, under some of the later emperors of Rome it became extremely dangerous even to speak one's own mind, for the least suspicion that a word had been uttered again the Emperor meant death. Tyranny grew stronger day by day, and the rights of the people less, until absolute power lay in the hands of the Emperor. The question now comes to us—How could such a state of affairs exist in a country in which the people knew what it meant to rule themselves? Why did not some great ruler rise up, as Demosthenes in an earlier time had risen, and move the people to crush the power of tyranny? The answer to these questions is found in the very rottenness and corruption of Roman society. It mattered not to the people how tyrannical their government was, if they could only live in drunkenness and keep their licentious pleasures. So indifferent were the people to their own welfare that any man who dared rise up against the established despotism was regarded as a lunatic and was either given no attention or was effectually silenced.

But, you ask, why were the Romans so corrupt when for many years they possessed the highest civilization and at that very moment held the greater part of the civilized world under their sway? It was this very power which in part caused the degeneracy of the people; for with power came pride, with pride came selfishness, and with selfishness came licentiousness. How often do we see individual lives in which this principle is worked out! The Romans' own pagan religion, too, was not a religion which, like our own, could build up character, but which tore down character; for the rites of worship demanded licentious orgies, and there was no life-giving power in the old gods to keep a man from the ways of evil. Such, then, as we have described, was the state of society in the Roman

Empire which smothered every form of eloquence even after freedom of speech had been restored.

Another strange contrast which this period bears to the preceding is in the *kind* of oratory: in the former period, political orators; in this, preachers. In the beginning of this period we see the rise of an inspiring force that was ultimtely to sieze not only Rome, but the greater part of the civilized world. This great power was born with Christ in the manger at Bethlehem. It spread slowly at first, and only touched here and there in the Roman Empire. Men did not dare proclaim it, for if they did they were put to death. But nevertheless it grew in the hearts of the people, until at last Constantine made Christianity the religion of the Empire and men were free to preach as they chose.

What a field there was then for the men who chose to spread the Gospel among their fellow-men and lead them to repentance! Yet the paths of the early preachers were not strewn with flowers; for they had to fight against Paganism, which still had its hold, and against strange beliefs and corrupt practices. These conditions, instead of daunting the preachers, brought out all the more strongly that sincerity and earnestness which led vast multitudes to the foot of the cross. Christianity in the early form was mainly Greek, but when it had risen to its climax in that country, and had done all in its power for the people, it was passed on to the Latins. As a consequence of this we find the earliest Christian orators, such as Paulus, Athanasius, John of Antioch, Chrysostom, and Basil among the Greeks. But after these came the preachers of the Latin Church, the greatest of whom were Tertullian, Leo the Great, Augustine, and Ambrose of Milan.

In the year 375 the barbarians began to move upon Rome, and from that time on for several centuries there was tumult and confusion throughout Europe. A little later, when many tribes were coming from the North and spreading like a vast net over the Roman Empire, there was need for men of eloquence and wisdom to control the turbulent people, and these preachers of the gospel were the men for this great opportunity. Ambrose of Milan and Augustine, two of the world's greatest missionaries, went up and down the country, and brought the rude barbarians to the foot of the cross, bearing witness of that spirit which is able to conquer the wildest savage and make him like a little child. It has been

said concerning Augustine that he was a prophet of the transition age standing between the old civilization that was passing away before a barbarian invasion, and a new order which was to succeed the pagan. Christianity from this time on was a dominant force in the world's history; and at the point in history we are now studying it seems but reasonable that the force which was exerting so powerful an influence over the new tribes should bring forth men who possessed that power which has always had the greatest influence over the conduct of men.

In the barrenness of the Middle Ages, in that period of oppression and superstition, we could scarcely expect to find any oratory; and indeed we do not find any oratory except the preaching of two or three great missionaries. There was not the least opportunity for any kind of public speech except preaching, for it was an age of despotism and the will of every ruler was law. What a change from the good old days of Greek and Roman civilization, when the common assembly where every man might speak was the bulwark of liberty! Now, however, there was no speaking for political policy or defense of a client. All that was decided by the iron hand of despotism, and the will of the ruler was the law of the land. Amid wars and desolation religion and letters fled to the monasteries for refuge, and from these monasteries came all the preachers. Of such were the Venerable Bede and Boniface of England.

In the Tenth Century a great cloud of ignorance settled down over the world. The schools of Charlemagne had died out. Even religion had degenerated into a mere form of doctrine carried out by the corrupt monks. Such a religion as this could inspire no man to lofty eloquence, and men almost ceased to preach.

After this age of darkness a better condition of society aroused men to greater thought and devotion to their religion, and we find a revival of letters and theology. Monks from small monasteries were the only ones who kept the fires of the spirit burning in their hearts, and from this number come Anselm, Abelard, and Bernard, the great men of the Middle Ages. In the Fifteenth Century, when the virile barbarian tribes of the fifth century had by their luxury degenerated into a rotten and corrupt people, Savonarola in Florence preached against the abuses of a society in which there was nothing but dancing and tournaments and in which everything sacred was put aside. The court was still more corrupt than the

people, and the great man who preached against these things was the only orator in the south of Europe that the age could produce at that time.

In the midst of Papal oppression and mere formality of doctrines, in the midst of degeneracy and corruption, a few inspired souls felt themselves inspired to preach new doctrines, and the world was shaken by the preaching of Luther at Wittenberg, Latimer, and Calvin in England, and John Knox in Holland. These men published to the world a new conception of religion, which revolutionized all human society, and was eventually received almost all the world over as the true religion.

With these reformers this period of oratory ends. As we look back over it we are struck by a singuar fact. In an age in which we find only pulpit oratory we find some of the greatest orators that the world has ever seen. These were the men who, when Christianity was making its greatest struggle for existence, kept the feeble flames alive and exalted religion to that form where it should do the most good for man. For such reasons as these the Missionary Period should be regarded as the greatest period in the history of oratory becauses of its influence on human conduct.

The Oratory of Religious and Political Reform

One reading the article might question the placing of the great orators of the Revolution in the same period with the preachers who gave the first impetus to the Reformation of Religion. And, indeed, at first glance, the orators of the Revolution seem so entirely different from such men as Luther and Calvin as to necessitate dividing this period into two parts. But it must be remembered that from the beginning of modern history down to the middle of the Eighteenth Century the one great movement running through history is the reformation of political and religious ideas. Nor are these in any way separate movements. They go hand in hand, and one can not be considered without the other. The great orators at the beginning of the Reformation not only instilled new ideas of religion into the minds of the great masses, but at the same time they promulgated new ideas of political freedom that were eventually to culminate in the French Revolution and the overthrow of absolute despotism throughout a greater part of the world.

The movement started by Luther was revolutionary in both its religious and political aspects. It taught not only that man should

think for himself in matters of religion, but also that all political power is a trust and the holder of that power cannot but be responsible to the community. It has been said that the supreme achievement of the Reformation was the modern state. Later, in France, the great preacher, Bossuet, showed that sovereigns hold their power not through the Pope, but from God alone. Thus we see that the great preachers of the Reformation has as great an influence on the revolution in political ideas as those orators who were distinctly political, and therefore we must consider the two classes together.

Having established our right to place all these seemingly different elements of oratory in one great period, we shall now proceed to consider the influences which underlie the oratory of this time. At the beginning of modern history the predominating influence was the Renaissance. It was an age of complete revolution of intellectual ideas. It was an age of discovery; men were exploring unknown waters in every direction, and the map of the world was being entirely changed. Men from Western Europe traveled to Eastern countries and brought back with them the treasures of Eastern art and science. We see in this age the rise and development of architecture and the beginnings of modern painting, sculpture, and music; the institution of universities, and the revival of Greek and Roman law. When America was discovered and the old ideas of Geography were proved false, the old blind reverence for antiquity was dispelled. The revolution in Geography which replaced the ignorance in science showed to many that the old doctrines of the Catholic Church could not represent the true conception of the will of God.

Such an awakening must necessarily contribute to the development of oratory, for it brought new ideas to enrich the eloquence of men, and the new conception of religion so fired the souls of a few orators that they felt bound to proclaim their message to the world. Men whose minds were filled with the spirit of the new learning, burned with the passion to save the world from the grasp of greedy ecclesiasticism; and, inspired with their religion, they poured out eloquence that was able to move their audiences to the most wonderful outbursts of emotion. It was the corruption and narrowness of a church that placed stress upon the outward ceremonies that inspired this oratory, but it was the true religion which furnished the power that started the greatest movement in history.

From Germany the movement spread to England and the same conditions that gave rise to the oratory of Germany produced Latimer, Cranmer, and Ridley, who preached against all that was bad in the English church. These men, however, could not preach for long, for when Mary came to the throne all free speech was ended, and no voice could be raised in favor of religious and political ideas. After these men all great oratory seems to have ceased in England. This may seem stange, too, when we consider the fact that it was the brilliant literary period of the reign of Elizabeth| This literature was mainly poetic and imaginative, giving rise to the wonderful poetry of Shakespeake and Spencer with its wealth of imagination; but there was no prose strong enough to be called oratory.

In France, on the other hand, the brilliant intellectual reign of Louis XIV was giving rise to the greatest oratory of the period. It was the Augustan age of French Literature. Louis XIV encouraged all forms of literary activity at his court, becauses in this way the reputation of his court was extended. As a result, literary activity of all kinds was cultivated and France led the world in intellectual splendor. Under these conditions French prose was developed to such an extent that it could become the medium of a wonderful eloquence. This oratory, however, was all religious, and was represented by the three great orators, Bossuet, Bourdaloue, and Massillon. No other kind of oratory was possible, for political freedom, giving rise to popular assemblies, was unknown. To many the pulpit was the only means of instruction, for journalism was closely muzzled, and the preacher was the leader of the people.

Not only did these orators attack abuses in the church, but they sowed the seeds of discontent in the minds of the people. This led to the French Revolution. The people who had heretofore been downtrodden, were now springing up with wonderful energy. The people went wild with their success, and were like sheep without a shepherd—they needed some one to lead them. It was an excellent opportunity for men who possessed persuasive powers to spring into the struggle and lead the fighting masses. At the beginning of the war the whole Parisian people mingled in the discussion of the best course to pursue and the orator was the greatest man of his time. The great orator who appeared at this juncture was Mirabeau. When the Convention succeeded the National Assembly, all the people were divided into two great parties, the Girondists and the

Jacobins. The former looked back to ancient republicanism; the latter wanted revolution. The collision between these two groups produced examples of oratory unlike any ever heard before; because this oratory, catching the fury of the Revolution, was more like that of demons than of men. Danton was the orator of the Reign of Terror, and carried on the great storm that Mirabeau started.

At the end of the Convention, when Napoleon came into power, no oratory was permitted except such as the great leader chose to give forth himself. At the overthrow of Napoleon, when the censorship was removed from speech, no great display of eloquence returned. There was no field for it, for after the Restoration, the Paliament of France was under the guidance of the politicians and not of the orator.

With this the period ends. We have traced the progress of one great movement, that of religious and political reform, and have shown how that movement in the beginning was inspired by the Renaissance, and was carried to its culmination by a class of orators entirely different from any class ever produced in the world's history. These orators, however, made possible the conditions in political life which bring out the orators we shall study in the next period.

The Period of Modern Deliberative Oratory

In the study of the world's oratory which has already come to to our attention it seems a curious paradoxical fact that the greatest eloquence has been produced in times of disaster, although such a condition is always fatal to the general literature of a country. England, on the other hand, during the great age of Elizabeth and in the years following, held the literary supremacy of the world, yet she produced in the midst of the achievements of her men of letters the greatest orators of modern times. That the general literary excellence of the age contributed to the development of oratory, cannot be questioned. Indeed the speeches of such men as Burke and Chatham are today read as marvelous examples of literary style.

The period from the middle of the Eighteenth Century to the middle of the Nineteenth Century was an intense political age for both England and America. It was an age of the clash of stupendous moral principles, which led to the victory of the cause of freedom and the establishment of a free government in America.

England and America occupied the center of the stage in world politics, and each country influenced the other in the development of the great orators whose eloquence moulded the destinies of those countries. England was passing through an era of world-wide colonial expansion. She was pushing her conquests to the very ends of the sea, and in this way had gained the honor of being the greatest nation in the world. It is true in the history of all nations that supremacy of power breeds pride and arrogance, and the rule did not fail in England. So arrogant had she grown that she began to lord it over her little colonies on the continent of North America until the justice-loving spirit of the early colonists would no longer tolerate such high-handed actions, and then and there arose the crisis that brought out wonderful eloquence on both sides of the ocean.

Not only was the influence of a great crisis present to develop eloquence, but the British Parliament in its workings was at that time the most wonderful theater for political eloquence that had ever been known. The British House of Commons had unlimited privileges of debate and the action of the government hinged upon the result of the measures there discussed and decided. In fact, in the times of which we are now writing the greatest method of securing votes was by the speeches of the orators who sat within the walls of Parliament.

We have spoken of the literary supremacy of Great Britain at this time, and of the influence which that literary age exerted upon the development of great orators. England's educational system, incorporating the products of the minds of the masters of literature, was peculiarly fitted for the training of an English youth whose great ambition was to become a power in the halls of government. The schools of England furnished for the young speaker the most extensive training in the classics to perfect his style, and also an excellent training in the speeches of the old Greek and Roman orators. The knowledge of history and government attained by the orators of England has been described as simply appalling. All these things combine to make up the training of a great political orator. Nor did the English youth fail to take advantage of them. Realizing the wonderful power that the orator could wield in Parliament, the ambition of every public spirited youth was to become an orator. Of the many who attained this distinction the names of Pitt, Mans-

field, Burke, Sheridan, and Fox stand out prominently as the greatest orators that England has ever produced.

The great distinguishing quality of the oratory of the French Revolution was its vehemence and power, and the blistering words which carried with them terrible denunciations. The oratory of England on the other hand is exactly the opposite, because the qualities of mind of the people of the two countries are entirely different. The slow and cautious minds of the men who sat in Parliament would never have tolerated a Mirabeau, whereas the logic and rhetoric of a Pitt or a Burke suited admirably the characteristic qualities of the thought of an Englishman.

It was the crisis which arose in the dealings with America that brought out the finest eloquence of Burke, Pitt, Sheridan, and Fox. Here was a clash of great moral principles, and such a class is prolific of the greatest in oratory. It was not the mere taxing of the colonies which brought the Americans to arms, but the principle involved jarred with their sense of justice. It was this principle also which inspired the English orators to uphold the rights of the colonies against the obstinacy of the stupid king. And because of the obstinacy of that king, the wonderful speeches in Parliament in behalf of the colonies failed of their purpose, and the American war came on.

It is interesting to note how many of these great orators of Great Britain came from Ireland. Ireland is said to be the favored land of eloquence. The Irish Parliament and bar gave great opportunity for the exercise of speaking and furnished incentive to its cultivation, while the temperament of the whole people was peculiarly conducive to its development. The warm impulses, the excitable natures, and the volubility of the race are characteristics which provide a great part of the equipment of the true orator. It is not strange then that from Ireland should come such orators as Curran, Burke, and O'Connell—great orators of the assembly and of the bar.

The crisis which brought out the talents of great orators in England was not without its fruit in America. So close was the connection between England and her colonies in education and business interests that the development of oratory in America may be considered as part of the great development that was taking place in the British Parliament. The language, religion, and traditions

the mother country. They had little literature of their own except of the colonists were those which their forefathers had brought from doubtful chronicles and dry theological records, so that books brought over on trading vessels were read and reread with eagerness and profit. In this way the eminent writers who were moulding the thought of the English people in politics, economics, theology, and education, became the moulders of the thought of the new nation across the sea. Not a small part of this literature coming from across the ocean was composed of the speeches in Parliament of Chatham, Burke, and Fox. These were read and reread by the future orators of America, until the language and the style had become a part of themselves. What an influence Burke must have exerted on the young men in America aspiring to be orators when that speech, which is considered the greatest literary masterpiece of eloquence, was studied and assimilated! After reading such a speech the minds of the leaders in America could not fail to be turned toward the great questions of political moment which were being discussed in the Parliament across the sea.

Even if the political literature and the speeches of the English did exert such an influence upon the colonists, the oratory of the Americans could not take the same form as that of England. The ruggedness and sternness of the early colonists gave a certain freedom and independence to his speech which was lacking in the speeches of the English orators. The intense sense of justice and the fierce patriotism of the Americans gave their oratory the stamp of conviction. But there was also present in America that supreme condition of all oratory—a struggle for freedom. The orators of England were simply pleading for fair play toward the colonists, but the colonial orators were pleading for the thing cherished most of all by an independent spirit, and that one thing was liberty. It was in the halls of the colonial assembly that Sam Adams, Fisher Ames, Richard Henry Lee, John Rutledge, Edmund Randolph, and Patrick Henry kindled the fires of a new liberty.

Political oratory seems to be the only form of great speech-making in colonial days. There was no need for great preachers. It is only when the morals of a people are low and great reforms needed that some inspired soul rises to meet the opportunity and flashes forth the message of a better life and a new order. In America the morals and religious life of the people were in such a

healthful state that no great preacher was needed to warn them of impending doom on account of their sins. With the fate of a nation in the balance, the man who is needed most of all is, not the man who encourages the people to repentance, but the man who moves his countrymen to fight for their freedom.

When the storm of the Revolution had passed, and America had become a free nation, and when a union and a constitution had been established, there still remained old prejudices and differences of opinion which in the days to come were to arouse the fiercest antagonism in the nation itself. One of these was the doctrine of states rights, which was bound to furnish the line of cleavage between the North and the South. Here again was a clash of great principles, and from the clash sprang the greatest orators of America. This clash in principles lasts from the time of John Randolph to Abraham Lincoln; but its climax at the time of the Civil War brings out the great climax in American oratory. The "moil and turmoil of divergent views" tried the souls of patriots and statesmen; but it also produced the highest in American eloquence. The doctrine of states rights came to involve the right of the South to hold slaves, and it was the claim of this right that finally occupied the whole time and attention of the American people. The names of John Calhoun, Daniel Webster, Henry Clay, and Charles Sumner will stand as the names of the men who fought in the halls of Congress for the triumph of a great principle, as Wendell Phillips fought outside of Congress until the triumph of the North in the Civil War put an end to the question forever.

When the Civil War had passed, and the two sections of the country had been united and were one in principle, there was no great inspiring force to bring out oratory such as we have seen before. The country settled down to peace and quiet, and men's minds were turned from the absorbing struggles of former years to new and interesting fields, the most important of which was education. This brought forth an entirely new kind of oratory, a discussion of which does not lie within the province of this paper

The oratory of the stirring times we have studied was produced by the same great movement that produced the oratory of ancient Greece and the oratory of the French Revolution. Who can say which period produced the greatest eloquence? It is said that the test of oratory is the result produced, but even when judg-

ing the results viewed in the light of the times when such oratory was given forth, we cannot say that the oratory of the Civil War or the Revolution was greater than that of Ancient Greece, but we must view the oratory of each period as examples of the finest achievements in the greatest of all arts.

The Period of Platform Oratery

It is claimed by some modern critics that the age of great eloquence has passed and no longer do we find a Daniel Webster, a Patrick Henry, or a Henry Clay inspiring the people to support a magnificent cause. But this is not entirely true. It is true, of course, that no great speakers, such as we have seen at the time of the Civil War, are found within the Halls of Congress or in the political arena. The Civil War is gone, and with it has gone the political crisis which produced the eloquence of Charles Sumner and Wendell Phillips. No longer does our Congress consider questions upon which hinge the life or death of a nation. The period of crisis has passed, and after it has come the period of peace and reconstruction which requires not great orators, but great builders. In an age which is purely commercial and in which are found no great questions involving the clash of moral and political principles, there is no need for the fiery appeals of a Henry Clay.

Our congressional and political life has so changed in the last few decades that it is almost impossible for eloquence to find a secure footing. Any man who would rise up in Congress and discuss a question as if it meant life or death to the nation, would be laughed to scorn. The method of the transaction of business in the Congress or Parliament of today leaves no opportunity for lofty flights of eloquence. Business is transacted by committees, and many times scarcely anything is left after the bill has passed from the committee room except its ratification by the whole body. Opportunity for debate is in this way greatly abridged, and no chance is given for an extended speech. Hedged in as he is by rules, the Congressional speaker has no time to indulge in flights of fancy and beautiful language, but must deal directly with facts and figures. Dry, hard reasoning on a question that will pass with the day is poor material to live in the minds of men as examples of magnificent eloquence.

It is on account of this business spirit of the age that we find no great forensic orators holding court rooms spellbound as did the

eloquent pleas of Clay and Webster. The business of the lawyer is not to indulge in flowery periods, but to untie the hard knots of the law. The understanding of the huge unwieldy bulk of the law demands all his attention. The old-school lawyer was by necessity an orator and won his cases by his own eloquence. But the new-school lawyer is a hard-headed business man who masters technicalities and manages the affairs of great corporations. The intelligent jury of today cannot be moved by displays of emotion and appeals to sympathy, but they must have the evidence before them in a clear and logical form. Such methods in the practising of law mean the death of great forensic oratory.

But the greatest reason why political oratory is now at its ebb is the lack of any great clash of principle. The doctrine of states-rights is no longer an issue involving the existence of a nation, and no Webster is needed. The question of human slavery is not today bringing on the mighty struggles of the Civil War, and we no longer have need of a Wendell Phillips. From a time of disaster our country passed to a period of peace and prosperity such as it has never known before, and it is the testimony of history that as surely as periods of adversity and prosperity follow each other, so surely will the periods of rise and decline in oratory follow each other. We are living in the period of decline in that great succession. Just as these periods follow each other, so must a critical period follow a creative period. The creative period of great political oratory has passed and the critical period has come in its place. Today instead of producing great orations we are studying the orators of the past to find their sources of power and their methods of construction. Thus in the succession of the periods of history, we find ourselves placed in an age when political oratory is at its natural ebb.

But lest we become too pessimistic, let us look at the picture from a different angle. Thus far we have been speaking only of political oratory; but while this kind of eloquence has decreased in influence, the oratory of the platform has steadily increased in character and power until it bids fair to rival any preceding period of oratory in its influence. Patrick Henry spoke only to hundreds while William Jennings Bryan speaks to millions in a single speech. No sooner have the words left the speaker's mouth than they are flashed over the country to thousands of newspapers which reach practically every home in the land. It is in this way that this prac-

tically new kind of oratory exerts such a tremendous influence. It is for this reason, too, that the platform speakers of today are not known as great orators in the sense that Patrick Henry and Demosthenes were known as great orators. Their words are not spoken to move the crowd before them to instant action, but they are spoken rather to the multitude of people outside who will weigh their words and ponder them and form their decisions unaffected by any influence of personal magnetism or appeal.

A form of oratory peculiar to this age is found in the recent development of the Lyceum. It is the fruit of the craving of an enlightened people for more knowledge, and of the increased importance placed upon education. In its molding of the thought and opinions of the masses of people on the great moral and political questions of the day, the influence of the Lyceum is tremenduous. Lectures upon science and philosophy, and indeed upon all forms of human endeavor, while they may have been poorly delivered, yet when they are handed down to posterity as part of a permanent literature are bound to add much to the educational life of the age.

Even in the preaching of the gospel the platform has its part. The greatest preachers of these later years who have done most for the religious life of the race have not been the men who have spoken in the churches, but the men who have appealed to thousands upon thousands from the platform of the revival tabernacle.

In the first part of this paper we spoke of the temporary ebb of a particular class of oratory. But as we contemplate this most modern period of oratory, we cannot in all justice say that oratory in general has declined. The oratory of today while not so productive of immediate results as the oratory of the Revolution and Civil War, in its more lasting influence is yet as great as any that has preceded. Oratory has not declined, it has only changed its form.

Oratory promises to be a still greater factor in the future. Everywhere in schools and colleges is increased study in this greatest of all arts, and students are training themselves to take part in any crisis which in the course of events may arise. This increasing interest in public speaking may be taken as a harbinger of the cretive age which in the natural succession of periods is bound to come. As in the past the law of succession has held true, and history always repeats itself, so surely will the present decline in political eloquence be followed by a new and greater period.

ADVANTAGES AND POSSIBLE DISADVANTAGES OF CONTESTS IN PUBLIC SPEAKING*

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LIFE is a series of contests. We are all striving to excel in various fields of endeavor. "Let us run with patience," Paul wrote to the Hebrews, "the race that is set before us." Over and over again he speaks of the Christian life as a race. But the sporting instinct, as President Hadley pointed out in his last baccalaureate address to Yale students, is "simply one of those human emotions which can do either great service or great harm according as it is rightly or wrongly directed." The value of all contests is measured by (1) the spirit in which they are conducted and (2) their objective. Let us apply these standards to contests in public speaking.

These contests offer possible disadvantages common to all sorts of sports. First, there is the mere spirit of winning, more or less regardless of means and the main purpose of the effort. For example, take our intercollegiate or interscholastic debates. It must be generally admitted that on the score of developing mental alertness, readiness in thinking before an audience, and thorough mastery of a given subject,—the process of debating furnishes a training that can hardly be acquired in any other way. If, however, the controlling purpose or motive, either on the part of the participants or the institution which they represent, is to secure a decision of the judges, it is bad. It is a bad situation, also, whenever an institution employs a man whose primary duty is to coach debating teams and whose position is more or less contingent upon his turning out winning teams. There are far too many institutions that are guilty of such practice, and this is certainly one of the possible disadvantages of this form of student activities. If we as teachers cannot take the attitude of promoting intercollegiate public speaking contests for the training such contests

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afford through the public discussion of questions of the hour, such contests are of doubtful value.

I think it must be conceded, also, that contests in public speaking are objectionable when there is no ultimate purpose or objective beyond attaining skill in speaking. True, such a purpose is good, but it stops short of the best. These contests should be educational in lines other than speaking merely. We should see to it that the subject matter is worthy of public presentation.

I would say, then, that the advantages of contests in Public Speaking are: (1) They furnish an impelling motive for speech training, and (2) they stimulate an intensive study of subjects worthy of public discussion. In intercollegiate debates the latter advantage is apparent, but it is not so apparent in oratorical and declamation contests as usually conducted. Let me illustrate what I mean by a proper objective that involves worth-while subject matter by telling you—necessarily briefly—of our experience with an organization of Texas schools known as the University Interscholastic League.

I am well aware that many other states—just half of the states of the Union, to be exact—have interscholastic organizations and contests more or less similar to what we have in Texas. I am using the Texas organization as an example, however, first, because I have been closely connected with it for the past eleven years, and secondly, because it is no doubt the most highly organized and largest in point of member schools of any similar organization in the United States.

Our Texas Interscholastic League has grown in membership from a total of twenty-eight schools in 1911 to 4,095 schools in 1921. Starting as a debating league of affiliated high schools in 1911, we have gradually thrown the contests open to all the public schools of the State, including the smallest one-teacher rural school. We now hold annual contests in debating, declamation, spelling, essay writing, track and tennis, with divisions such that schools compete with others of approximately equal size and rank.

Recurring to the point of having worth-while subject matter, let me illustrate with our contests in declamation. During and since the war we have specifically related all of our literary contests, so far as practicable, to a program of Americanism or citizen-

ship-training. During the war we put on a patriotic program in co-operation with the State Council of Defense. Last year we instituted what was called an Americanization program. With the co-operation of the Scottish Rite bodies of the State we distributed to the members of our organization a book containing selections from the speeches and writings of eminent American publicists in the field of good citizenship. This program is being continued during the current school year, and we have published in a bulletin selections of the same general character for distribution to the member-schools.

Now, compare such speech-content, relating to subjects of present day interest and importance, with the typical declamation contests wherein students are wont to deliver such selections as "Curfew Shall Not Ring Tonight," or "The Midnight Ride of Jenny McNeal," or "Spartacus to the Gladiators," or a selection that would come in the category of a dramatic reading. We require a selection which the speaker adopts as his own and which he delivers for the purpose of informing, convincing, and persuading the audience before him. In other words, in our declamation contests we are training not the actor or reciter, but the public speaker.

Consider for a moment what this means in a government ruled by public opinion and wherein public opinion, in turn, is largely formed through public discussion. Our government spent millions of dollars during the war in organizing thirty thousand Four-Minute men for the purpose of informing and educating public opinion on the issues of the hour. Last year our University Interscholastic League sent out forty thousand speakers from the member-schools as campaign speakers on behalf of a better American citizenship, reaching audiences in the various local, district, and state contests aggregating 800,000 citizens. Moreover, these pupils from the schools are most effective campaign speakers because they speak to sympathetic audiences.

It is now proposed to co-ordinate state intercollegiate and interscholastic organizations under some such name as "The Citizenship League of American Schools and Colleges," and in due course to develop district and national contests in accordance with a uniform program having training for citizenship as the objective. I have

not time to go into details, but national headquarters of this organization will begin to function with the opening of schools next fall. Regarding this movement, let me ask you: (1) Amid all the organized movements that have been evolved since the War for Americanization or Americanism service, what more fundamental and far-reaching and effective plan could be devised than to reach through the motive of contest the citizens-in-the-making now in our schools and the future leaders who are now students in our colleges and universities, and through them to promote an intelligent discussion of pressing problems of the hour? (2) If the plan proposed is practicable, as I feel sure it is, would it not furnish, through reflex action, a mighty stimulus to the teaching of public speaking?

There are certain collateral topics that I shall not attempt to discuss, but mention them here in hopes that discussion from the floor may bring out helpful suggestions:

1. What can be done to help ensure just decisions in speech contests, notwithstanding the fact that there are no absolute criteria for judging?

2. In oratorical contests, should subject matter and composition be graded by a separate committee of judges?

3. Is it possible to formulate rules for contests in extempore speaking that will prevent a memorized speech and at the same time ensure due preparation?

These questions represent puzzles to me. I hope that you have solved them! In any event, the main points that I would leave with you are:

The psychology of contests should be utilized to stimulate training in public speaking. The responsibility is on us as teachers to guide these contests along helpful, healthy lines, to teach our students how to lose as well as how to win, to play the game fair and in a sportsmanlike attitude; and finally, to so organize our contests that they will deal with subject matter that is valuable both to the speakers and to the audiences addressed. If these objectives can be obtained, contests in public speaking are of immeasurable value.

A CONSIDERATION OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION IN BEGINNING COURSES*

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SYNOPSIS

I. There are individual differences of ability in acquisition and learning which manifest themselves in classroom instruction.

II. The present system of instruction does not adequately meet the needs created by these individual differences.

III. There is a necessity for a classification which will place students of like abilities in the same group.

IV. There is a plan which it is believed will more nearly meet various needs created by individual differences than does the present system.

V. There are advantages to be gained by the adoption of such a plan or classification.

It is my purpose to present, for your consideration, some suggestions pertaining to the solution of that important problem of "Individual Differences" which presents itself in all forms of group instruction and more especially in beginning courses. This is not a new problem, but it is one in which there are revealed new and intricate complications with each analization. These new revelations have presented some impregnable barriers to even the master pedagogical minds of the age. With all the enlightenment of our present educational system these obstacles stand as a challenge to the inventive genius of our most progressive leaders. And thus will they continue to stand until an intelligent and adequate adjustment has been made.

I am not assuming that no adjustment of a practical nature has been made; my point is that an adequate adjustment has not yet been found. It will, no doubt, be obvious to you that I have not

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included within the scope of this paper a definite formulated plan whereby this much desired adjustment can be fully brought about; however, if the suggestions set forth here stimulate such thoughts as will result in bringing us nearer to such an adjustment, the paper will have served its purpose.

Scientific investigation reveals the fact that individuals differ, and differ widely, in any trait or combination of traits. Industrial practice finds that a large fraction of this variability remains within a group willing to do a given sort of work at a given wage per hour. Likewise scholarship practice finds that a large per cent of this variability remains within a group of students registered in any given course.

In every course there are registered, generally speaking, two main classes of students, one group which is interested in the work and the other group has no interest whatever. The only reason why the latter group is represented is because the class happens to fit into their schedule. It is not a rare thing to find in this last group some who have an aversion to the course. It is in this consideration that we find our first general division.

1. The interested group, and
2. The uninterested group.

It is obvious that while the instructor is using every conceivable device to sell the course to the uninterested group those who had an interest from the beginning will be getting nothing from the instruction given. Yet such action on the part of the instructor is necessary. No one will question the value of taking time to create an interest in the work, for unless an interest is created the course will mean nothing to the student.

It is not, however, the above stated difference in which we are most concerned, but rather it is with the *"individual differences" which are found, in every group along the line of acquisition and learning.* Taking it for granted that we are all agreed that some such differences do exist, I shall not take time to submit any proof in support of the facts, but immediately take up a discussion of some of the elements which enter into the situation.

By describing the laws of learning or modifibility and the changes in mental functions, which learning brings about, it is assumed that different individuals learn at different rates; and that

individual natures must, if subjected to the action of different external situations or environments, become different. The report of studies of the amount, rate and permanence of improvement gives frequent illustration of the variability of individual students in whatever feature of intellect, character or skill we examine.

Any method which is the best possible for those of one degree of a trait cannot be the best possible for all individuals. Nor will two or three varieties of treatment suffice to educate all in the best way. Variations in human nature are wide and continuous, so that theoretically treatment also must vary much and continuously.

It is not possible with ordinary facilities thus to give each individual in each trait the best posssible treatment, but my contention is that a fuller knowledge of the amount and distribution of variation will prevent certain blunders which have frequently occurred in the past. A division into three groups is always preferable to a division into two groups, because the three group division is more conformable to the need which is created by individual differences. Since the variations in any trait are so wide, a student should always be measured, not only, as now, by his ability in comparison with his fellows, but also by his improvement over his own past record. It occurs to me that it is very desirable to strive for a rating of the individual on the basis of his own record rather than to rely entirely upon his record as it is compared with someone else who doubtless is more or less favored by nature in ability for acquisition and learning.

The study of the facts and laws applicable to all men by virtue of their common humanity gives education its fundamental rules for the control of changes in intellect. The study of the facts and laws of individual differences enables us to apply these principles economically in the case of each individual whom we seek to educate. In studying individual differences it is necessary to reduce the infinitude of tendencies to think, feel, and act in certain ways in response to the varied situations which life offers, to the more general, and so, fewer tendencies which the psychologists call abilities, interests, habits, qualities of mind or mental traits.

All reliable studies so far are made of the relation between the amounts of desirable single traits in the same individual agree in finding direct or positive relations between such traits. Having a large measure of one good quality increases the probability that one

will have more than the average of any other good quality. He who can learn better than the average through the eyes, tends to learn better through the ears also. He who can attend to one thing better than all other men, will be able to attend to many things at once or in rapid succession better than most of them. Artistic ability, as in speaking, music or painting, goes with scientific ability and matter-of-fact wisdom. The best abstract thinker will be above the average in concrete thought also. Efficiency in one respect is positively correlated with efficiency in others.

All the sciences and arts of controlling human nature must accept the original variety of human nature as a condition for thought and action. The instructor who has not learned by ordinary experience that each student is, to some extent, a separate problem demanding his best interest, and educational theory and practice, should learn it once for all from psychological theory.

The reaction against the blight of uniformity in teaching has deepened. It has exposed itself positively in the demand for administrative and instructional means that will develop an increased regard for individuality.

From the facts revealed by a mental survey of high school seniors made by Dr. W. F. Brook and from facts revealed through the various tests given to those entering college we find that there are about as many individuals of the mediocre grades of intelligence who go to college as there are of those who possess special abilities. What uniform quality of work should be expected from college students who vary so greatly in mental endowment and how may reliable ratings assist us in giving to these young people the educational direction and guidance they need?

If, as we may assume, individuals possessing a superior grade of mental ability, when measured by a standard obtained from a normal or average group, are capable of making a good record in their work, we may safely conclude that any student who makes a score above medium or average score for the group is capable, so far as native mental ability is concerned, of doing good work in college. If he makes a score very far above the average, we may conclude that he has mental ability to do superior work and this grade should be expected of him.

It is an evident fact that many individuals do attend college who cannot do average or first-class work unless the standards are

adjusted to the level of ability of such students as attend. We should not expect the same quality or amount of work from students who vary so greatly in native mental endowment. We should, on the other hand, use the knowledge which has been obtained concerning the differences in intelligence and adjust our work accordingly. If students of all grades of intelligence are admitted to our courses, as they are, some arrangements should be made for grouping these students into classes or sections of approximately equal mental strength and physical possibilities so that the problems of instruction might be facilitated and the superior students given the kind of opportunity and assistance which their special ability demands. Likewise those students of mediocre ability or those below the average, should be grouped into classes or sections of equal mental strength and physical possibilities in order to get the maximum development out of their training. It seems to me that in this way alone can we hope to have an adequate adjustment brought about. I know of no other way in which we can bring about proper retardation and acceleration of our students.

In recognition of the ever increasing demand, from the classroom in beginning courses created by individual differences I should like to submit for your consideration a proposed classification of five stages or levels upon any one of which a student could enter the course and receive the specific training which he most needs. As soon as he is considered proficient in one stage he may be accelerated to the next stage or level. I feel no hesitancy in presuming that you will agree that in any heterogeneous group of thirty, forty, or fifty students such as promiscuously registered in any course, there will be represented individual differences which will justify the application of many individual treatments. In offering a reason for taking the liberty of such a presumption I shall submit the results of a case of grading which was taken from a department of speech training. This case was picked at random and I am sure that it is not extraordinary in any respect. I feel sure that it is only typical of the average situation which may be found in any such department of speech and not at all foreign to situations existing in other departments of systematic educational training.

These results were submitted by five instructors teaching beginning courses in the same department. A total of 516 students was considered. At the end of six weeks training a check was taken

on them by their respective instructors. Thirty-two made an A grade, seventy failed to make a passing grade. The majority of the remaining group made an average grade of C. Then there were two representative groups which made D and B grades.

I am aware of the fact that these, or any group of grades, should not be taken too seriously, however they do have a pertinent significance. That is that students do learn at different rates and that the method of instruction which is best for one group will not be best for all concerned. This being true, there would be better results obtained if students were grouped according to ability. The grouping which I would suggest is as follows:

1. Those suffering, more or less, from organic troubles which are correctable with ordinary departmental facilities.

2. Those who manifest shallow thought content and poor thought organization.

3. Those who have wrong habits of articulation, enunciation and pronunciation.

4. Those who are poor coordinators.

5. All students who have no outstanding defects which would merit their being placed on any of the four levels suggested above could be grouped together and permitted to proceed with their work in a more advantageous manner than they could were no such divisions made.

Though incomplete as such a classification may appear, I am sure that it has certain fundamental advantages which do not appear in the present system used in beginning courses.

Those who would object to this, or any classification, would base the support of their objection upon the well established fact that no instructor uses a blanket form of instruction and with such a statement would infer that the individual needs of all the groups are adequately met. I am willing to grant that every instructor does, in a certain measure, vary his method of instruction and a classification of students would not prevent the continuance of such. The facts to which I do wish to call your attention are: that it is humanly impossible for any instructor, be he ever so versatile in his art of teaching, to vary his methods, in the brief time allotted to the average recitation period, sufficiently to give adequate help to the many needs prsented. That if this or some

similar method of classification is used there will not be an entire elimination of individual differences but that the number and range of differences will be limited to the extent that it will be possible for the instructor to meet them in a more advantageous manner. That in such a classification each group can be working upon its own particular problems and as soon as the difficulty is sufficiently solved to warrant the student's acceleration to the next level, he can be admitted to the next stage, thus he can be advanced as an individual and need not be retarded by some one who is slower to acquire the same amount of devlopmnt.

The practical difficulty of working out a class schedule such as would meet the various needs created by such a classification could be met by developing a technique conformable to such a group of needs, and by having a staff conform to the technique established. Any instructor could easily conduct five sections, or more, representing these five stages or levels. Should an instructor pass a student from one stage to another and the student not be able to enter the next level under the same instructor, he should be able to enter the desired level under some other instructor and get approximately the same needed training.

It is very clearly shown that if such a classification is used the various groups will vary in the time needed to complete the course, if the standards are the same. It is obvious that group one would need much more time to meet the average requirement than would group five. This fact points out one of the greatest advantages to be gained by the adoption of such a scheme, namely, that when a student is ready to be advanced he need not be retarded by some one else; that when a student, or group of students, has met the required standard, he can be passed on to an advanced course whether it be at the end of one, two or three semesters' work.

I realize that this point of view is not in harmony with the ultra-conservative idea of educational training; however, our most progressive institutions of learning are no longer holding rigidly to the view once held by them—which is as absurd and fallacious as it is ancient—that a student must spend four years within their walls before he can take his degree, when he might have met all the requirements in three years or even less time.

Why should any student be required to spend a definite amount

of time upon a given subject when he might master it in less time than that which is allotted?

Why should he not be asked to master certain principles in the course and assured that when he has done this he will be advanced?

Would not such an agreement between instructor and student be conducive to greater effort on the part of the student?

Why should a student's acceleration or retardation be dependent in any way upon a group?

In conclusion may I ask if we, as instructors, have not faced situations where the progress of certain individuals has been retarded by others of less ability?

In the discussion of the advisability of adopting such a classification I realize that reputable opinion can be cited in support of remote extremes. The greatest difficulty encountered in writing the paper was to adequately treat a subject of such magnitude in the brief period of time allotted for its delivery and discussion. Consequently I have only hinted at a number of facts which could have been profitably discussed at length.

In submitting the suggestions set forth in the paper, the writer is frank to confess that many of them can be greatly improved and your earnest consideration of them from any angle is coveted.

INTRODUCTION TO THE SCIENCE OF PHONETICS

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A SCIENCE, like a physical structure, if it is to be permanent and serviceable, must be built upon a firm foundation. The foundation of any true science is composed of facts which have been verified and properly classified, and which are presented in their true relations.

This article deals with the Science of Phonetics, particularly with some of the physical and therefore verifiable facts of that science. Every science is comprehensive. The accumulation and observation of facts, and their comparison and verification by many independent minds and hands, constitute the basis of every science. No theory, no method, no classification, no nomenclature, whether inherited or new-made, has any just claim to continued acceptance when verified facts conflict with it.

In Phonetics there have been theories, methods, classifications, nomenclatures, enough and to spare. In the Science of Phonetics strictly so called, it is altogether probable that some yet unstated classifications and some new terms are required for finer accuracy, or, in some departments, for any accuracy at all. The Science of Phonetics is the only foundation for a scientific knowledge of English or any other language.

The abundant diversity and frequent conflict of methods and theories, to be seen in the courses of study in English subjects, in schools and colleges, are the proofs of the need of greater accuracy, not to say veracity in the official form of the Science of Phonetics. This can come only from fuller knowledge of the science on the part of teachers themselves. The way to that knowledge is studious observation, and intelligent practice. A course or a syllabus may be conveniently followed; but a mere syllabus, in itself, has no final authority in science.

Perhaps all teachers of phonetics and the allied subjects of rhetoric, elocution, singing, and good speech in general, are aware of something unsatisfactory to say the least, in the courses and

text-books and treatises upon which they must needs depend in their professional work. Some teachers, not content with mere dissatisfaction, have published their views; and various movements have been undertaken in many cities, involving a revision of the conventional phonetics, and some see the need, too, of a revision of an educational system which tolerates and enforces in phonetic and allied subjects, beliefs, theories, and methods, that are indefensible alike on scientific and on practical grounds.

Only teachers and students who have "gone into the subject," and who have staid there some time, observing and reflecting, realize how greatly this first-hand knowledge of phonetics facilitates the work of teaching.

For practical reasons, then, apart from intellectual concern, the teachers of phonetics, of speech, of elocution, of singing, will find it profitable to take part in the effort to promote and improve the Science of Phonetics. Indeed, it is only by their participation in large numbers, and for a long time, that any substantial and permanent improvement will come. Few of us realize how often a good idea, well presented by competent teachers or writers, disappears from view because its supporters endure only for a season.

With such views and such principles, a number of students of the Science of Phonetics in New York, members of the Phonetic Society, and members of a Considering Club, which often sits down to consider "*omnia scibilia et quaedam alia*," have been preparing and discussing drafts and charts and other things various and curious having relation to phonetic matters and Phonetic Science. These considerings, and these excursions into outlying science and history have been more than interesting. They have been instructive to the participants. Perhaps some of the results of these free studies may be both interesting and instructive to that wider circle which reads, and reveres, the sacred volume of periodical print.

PHONETICS

Science and Art

Definition

I. Phonetics is the Science of Speech Sounds. It includes a study of the constitution of the sounds; the manner in which they are produced; their mode of transmission through the air; the

structure and action of the organ of hearing; the process of transforming the air impulses (air waves) into nerve impulses; and finally those changes produced in the nerve centers, which we term sense-impressions of sound.

II. Speech sounds are produced by a mechanism (an apparatus) made up of animal tissues, such as bones, cartilage, muscles, and nerves. A study of the anatomy and physiology of these structures is therefore essential to a complete knowledge of the production of such sounds.

III. The speech mechanism (speech apparatus) is composed of the air current mechanism, the larynx, and the cavities of the pharynx, mouth and nose. The muscular structures surrounding these cavities enable us to change their size and shape, and thus, through resonance, to differentiate the various speech sounds.

IV. Speech sounds are called, distinctively, phones. These phones are the actual entities that are represented by the visible symbols called letters.

Fundamental Factors of Voice Production

V. There are four fundamental factors in the production of speech sounds.

First: Vibrators.
Second: Air-current mechanisms.
Third: Resonance mechanisms.
Fourth: Pitch mechanisms.

1. Vibrators

VI. A vibrator is a portion of elastic matter, as a string, a plate, a mass of air, or a living tissue, which moves rapidly to and fro past its point of normal rest. As a vibrator moves toward one side, it forces the air particles before it closer together and produces a "phase of condensation." At the same time, the air particles behind the vibrator, being relieved of pressure, separate, and a "phase of rarefaction" is produced. This process is immediately reversed when the vibrator swings back, and this action and reaction of pressure and release, is continued in very rapid succession.

VII. One phase of condensation and one phase of rarefaction on the same side of a vibrator, constitute a complete air wave. We

are concerned only with the air waves produced above the vocal cords, as these air waves alone affect the auditory mechanism. We must distinguish clearly between an air current and an air wave. In an air wave, the air particles merely move to and fro from the phase of condensation to the phase of rarefaction, and vice versa. It is very different in the case of an air current; here, the particles of air are driven along and away from their original place.

VIII. The air pressure in the phase of condensation is much greater than in the phase of rarefaction. These varying conditions of pressure in the air are absolutely essential to the functioning of the auditory mechanism; that is, there could be no motion of the ear drum without these varying degrees of pressure in the air. To produce air waves, or the to-and-fro motion of the air particles, a vibrator must have great elasticity. A certain degree of resistance is necessary for the elastic element to function. This resistance may be inherent in the vibrator, as in the reed and the tuning fork; or it may be imparted to it by tension, as in the string and the vocal cords; or by an increase of density, as in the air blade.

IX. There are only two substances in the voice mechanism which have sufficient elasticity to act as vibrators; these are the vocal cords and air.

Tone Vibrator

X. The vocal cords are two bands or strings of yellow elastic tissue. The requisite resistance is imparted to them through tension. This tension is effected by the action of the vocal muscles upon the cartilages of the larynx. The vocal cords are virtually strings, as they are attached at both ends and are subject to tension. Therefore they segment in precisely the same manner as do strings when vibrating, and so the partial tones, fundamental tone and overtones, of the voice are identical in pitch with those of the string.

XI. The vocal cords lie horizontally across the larynx from front to back and are attached to the cartilages of the larynx. By the action of the vocal muscles on these cartilages the cords are tensed and brought close together.

XII. The vocal cords, (1) having a definite shape, (2) being

attached in a definite way, and (3) segmenting in a definite manner, will produce, during their vibrations, air waves of regular sequence and definite lengths.

XII. A characteristic of all vibrating strings, including the vocal cords, is that they vibrate in several different ways at the same time. They never have a simple pendular motion, like the pendulum of a clock. To be more specific, the vocal cords vibrate as a whole to produce the fundamental or pitch tone; in halves, to produce the first overtone (which is always the octave;) in thirds, to produce the second overtone; in fourths, to produce the third overtone; and so on.

XIV. Helmholz says, "Musical tones consist of a regular motion of the air, continuing uniformly, and in its turn excited by an equally regular motion of the sonorous body whose impulses are conducted to the ear by the air. The particles of the air must also execute periodically, recurrent vibrations, in order to excite the sensation of musical tone in the ear. By periodic motion we mean one in which the air particles return to the same condition after exactly equal intervals of time."

XV. We have now established a physical basis for the term "Speech tone." These conditions are in accord with the definition of tone given by acousticians.

Noise Vibrators

XVI. An air noise vibrator, or an "air blade," is a relatively dense and rigid portion of air, made so by forcing a current of air through a constricted opening. The air vibrator is always beyond the constriction through which the air current is forced. The air blade is indefinite and irregular in shape, and of course, without any attachments. Its manner of vibrating is constantly changing in an irregular way, both as to its shape and as to its segmentation; consequently an air vibrator starts a great number of wave lengths at the same time. The pitch of the sound which we hear, when started by an air vibrator, is determined by the size and shape of the resonance cavities which amplify it.

XVII. The sounds produced by flue organ pipes, flutes, whistles and the like, are originated by air vibrators. In such instruments there is a great variety of wave lengths started by the

vibrator, but only one wave length is amplified at any given time by the cavity of the pipe, and therfore this is the only one we hear. The others are too weak to have any perceptible effect upon the auditory mechanism. The pitch of the sounds produced by such instruments is determined by the size of the pipe, while the pitch of the sounds produced by stringed instruments, including the vocal cord mechanism, is determined by the length, weight and tension of the vibrator. The pitch of the sounds produced by the vocal mechanism, when the sounds are "noise," and not "tone," is likewise determined by the size and shape of the "pipe" concerned, that is, the resonance cavities.

XVIII. In the speech sounds originated by an air vibrator there are a number of air waves of very nearly the same length amplified by the resonance cavities at the same time. This is because of the complexity of shape of these cavities. Such a combination of air waves is termed "noise" by acousticians; for example the sounds represented by the letters s, t, h, k, and f, are noise sounds.

XIX. The air vibrators which originate these sounds are located in various parts of the voice mechanism. In the h sound the air vibrator is located just above the ventricular bands, or "false cords," that for k just in front of the soft palate; that for s and t at the front of the mouth cavity. It is easy to understand that because of the varying positions of the vibrator, there will be a different resonance for each sound. This results in a different combination of air waves, capable of being differentiated by the auditory mechanism.

XX. It will thus be seen that resonance is the factor which enables us to differentiate the noise sounds, and that this differentiation in turn depends upon the size and shape of the resonance cavities. We therefore have a large class of speech sounds which are termed "noise" sounds.

XXI. The line of demarcation between "tone" and "noise" sounds is clear and distinct, both as to their constitution and as to their manner of production.

Helmholz writes, "the irregularly alternating sensation of the ear in the case of noises, leads us to conclude that for these the

vibration of the air must also change irregularly." The changes in the air must follow those of the vibrator; hence the motion of the latter must be an irregular one.

Mixed Sounds

XXII. It is possible to actuate both the vocal cords and the air blade at the same time. This action will result in a combination of tone and noise sounds, which may appropriately be termed "mixed." Under such circumstances neither vibrator will act as efficiently as though it were acting alone. The vocal cords cannot be closely approximated, for if they were, sufficient air would not escape to actuate the air blade. On the other hand, with the glottis, or the opening between the vocal cords partially closed, as in the mixed sounds, sufficient air cannot pass through to form properly the air blade. For these reasons mixed sounds will not have the volume and the carrying power of either tone or noise sounds when produced separately.

Classification

We therefore have three great divisions of speech sounds, namely:

XXIII. 1st. Tone sounds, in which the vocal cords act as the vibrator. These have a regular defiite motion which is periodic in character. The resulting air waves are regular and periodic and produce definite pitches.

XXIV. 2nd. Noise sounds, in which the air blade acts as the vibrator. The size and shape of the air vibrator are irregular and indefinite. Its motion is constantly changing, and therefore is also irregular and indefinite. The resulting air waves must consequently be non-periodic and with no definite pitch relationship.

XXV. 3rd. Mixed sounds, in which both vibrators are active. In this case neither vibrator can act as efficiently as it would when acting alone. We therefore have a modified tone sound and a modified noise sound, traveling through the air together. The constitution of the mixed sounds consequently differs from that of either of the foregoing classes, and the sensations produced by these different classes are readily distinguished from each other.

XXVI. Every speech sound uttered by the voice mechanism can be placed under one of these three classes. For this reason our classification is complete. It is also in accord with the accepted

definitions of classification. It will be noted that we have made our classification in accordance with the constitution of the sounds themselves, and this is still further elucidated by a statement of the manner in which they are produced. The terms "tone sounds," "noise sounds," and "mixed sounds," applied to the classes of speech sounds, are used in a specific and restricted sense.

The following statements regarding classification from different authors, may be pertinent here.

XXVI. "The general qualities and attributes of things are to be considered in classing. Classification serves the purpose of Science. Classification is concerned with mental objects. Knowledge, experience and judgment are requisite in classing."—Crabb.

XXVIII. "To class rightly—to put in the same group things which are essentially of the same natures, and in other groups things of natures essentially different, is the fundamental condition to right guidance in actions."—Herbert Spencer.

XXIX. "Definition is so closely connected with classification that, until the nature of the latter process is in some measure understood, the former cannot be discussed to much purpose."—John Stuart Mill.

XXX. "There is not a more singular character in the world than that of a thinking man. It is not merely having a succession of ideas which lightly skim over the mind, that can with any propriety be styled by that denomination. It is observing them separately and distinctly, and ranging them under their respective classes.—S. J. Pratt.

2. Air-Current Mechanisms

XXXI. The vibrators are set in action by air currents. In the production of such air currents two mechanisms are required:

1st. The breath mechanism

2nd. The vacuum and producing mechanism.

XXXII. Breath is defined as "the air inhaled and exhaled in respiration." Breath is, therefore, an air current. Speech sounds may be produced when the air current is passing in or out of the lungs. Ordinarily speech sounds are produced by the outgoing current. However, with a little training, speech sounds may

be produced almost as well with the ingoing as with the outgoing current. This is especially true in singing, where articulation is usually less frequent than in speech.

Breath Mechanism

XXXIII. The Breath Mechanism consists of the lungs and the air passages leading to them, the chest walls and the muscles which move them, and the diaphragm. The chief muscles of inspiration are the external intercostal muscles and the diaphragm. The external intercostal muscles contract and thereby raise and evert the ribs. This action increases the transverse and antero-posterior diameters of the chest cavity. The contraction of the muscular fibres of the diaphragm lowers it and thus increases the vertical diameter of the chest cavity. The air flows into the lungs to fill the partial vacuum thus formed, and the act of inspiration is complete. Ordinary expiration involves no muscular contraction.

XXIV. In ordinary breathing, the contraction of the external intercostal muscles and of the diaphragm during inspiration, stretches the tissues of the chest walls and of the lungs and thus energy is stored in them. When the inspiratory muscles are relaxed, the elasticity of the chest walls and of the lung substance comes into effect and the air is forced out of the lungs. The contraction of the inspiratory muscles is the motive power of inspiration, while the elasticity of the chest walls and of the lung substance furnishes the motive power for ordinary expiration.

XXXV. In the production of speech sounds the inspiratory muscles are relaxed gradually, so that the air is forced out of the lungs slowly, giving the appropriate degree of pressure for actuating the vibrators. The relaxation and consequent raising of the diaphragm, the relaxation of the intercostal muscles, and the resulting collapse of the chest walls and lung substance, compress the air in the lungs, and thereby produce the outgoing air current for setting the vibrators in motion. This setting of the vibrators in motion is the sole function of the breath in speech production. Breath or the air current bears the relation to the Vibrator, that the belt which conveys the power from the motor does to the machine which it operates. Breach, or the air current is not the motive

power of the voice mechanism, but is the agent which conveys the energy from the motor to the vibrator.

Vacuum Producing Mechanism

XXXVI. The vacuum producing mechanism is formed by the tongue and the hard palate. The tongue is forced against the palate so as to press the air from between the two. Then by a contraction of the lingualis muscle, a cavity is formed by hollowing some portion of surface of the tongue, without releasing its edges. When the edges are suddenly released the air rushes in to fill the vacuum, and an air current is produced. This current produces an air vibrator, and air waves are set up. The sounds of the voice called "clicks" are produced in this manner.

The fact that speech sounds may be produced by the ingoing air current, completely disproves the "puff theory," as advocated by some prominent writers, as well as the common notion that speech sounds are breath. It also shows that air waves travel practically as well against a slow-going air current as they do with it. If air waves can thus travel in a direction opposite to that of the air current, they certainly cannot be identical with the air current. According to the accepted definitions of breath and sound, the term breath-sound is self-contradictory. The fact that a particle of air cannot be "driven along and away from its original place" and at the same time "return to the same condition after exactly equal intervals of time," make the "breath-sound" an absurd and impossible conception. Moreover, if air particles could be driven along and away from their original place at the speed at which speech sounds travel, they would become a terrifically destructive force. But speech sounds are harmless.

3. RESONANCE MECHANISMS

Resonance Defined

XXXVII. Resonance is the reflection of the phases of condensation of many air waves, in such a manner that they are brought together or concentrated near, and within, the restricted outlet of a cavity. The result is a great ampification of the sound. The particular kind of reflection mentioned above requires a peculiar shape of the cavity. Such a cavity is called a resonance cavity.

XXXVIII. There are two ways of amplifying sound waves:

1st: by the process of resonance.

2nd: by the process of sympathetic vibration.

XXXIX. Resonance and sympathetic vibration are quite different as to their nature, and as to their method of application. These differences may be described as follows:

XL. The process of resonance may involve but one vibrator. The resonance cavity takes the phases of condensation of many air waves, as they come from the vibrator, one at a time, reflects them from different points inside the cavity, until many of these phases of condensation have been brought together, within the cavity, and near the restricted outlet, and then discharges them through the outlet as one amplified air wave. It is possible to amplify sound by this process of resonance, so that it will carry two or three hundred times as far.

Sympathetic Vibration Defined

XLI. In contrast with the process of resonance the process of sympathetic vibration involves two or more vibrators, namely:—

A primary vibrator,—and one or more secondary or sympathetic vibrators.

XLII. The construction of the present piano affords a good illustration of sympathetic vibration. The string or primary vibrator is set into motion by the stroke of the hammer. Vibrations of the primary vibrator are conducted to the secondary vibrator, namely the sounding board, through the bridge upon which the string rests, which bridge in turn rests upon the sounding board. The vibrations from the string cause the sounding board, or secondary vibrator, to divide into segments, each of which constitutes practically a separate vibrator, and each of which starts a phase of condensation at the same time. These phases of condensation travel through the air together and hence form one amplified air wave. The result is the same as in the process of resonance—an amplified air wave.

XLIII. Though the result is the same the processes are different. These differences may be stated as follows:

1st. Resonance may involve but a single vibrator, while sympathetic vibration involves two or more vibrators.

2nd. Resonance requires reflection, but there is no reflection in sympathetic vibration.

3rd. In resonance the phases of condensation are started singly, at consecutive periods of time. In sympathetic vibration all the phases of condensation are started at the same time.

4th. Resonance involves a vibrator in close proximity to the mouth of a cavity, the cavity acting as the amplifier or resonator, while sympathetic vibration involves primary and secondary vibrators, the secondary vibrators acting as the amplifier.

5th. A resonance cavity cannot originate air waves as it has no secondary vibrator. The secondary vibrators in sympathetic vibration originate air waves and there would be no amplification without these secondary vibrators.

6th. Resonance is the means of amplifying sound in voice production, while sympathetic vibration is a factor in the perception of sound by the auditory mechanism.

XLV. An echo is due to a single reflection, and instead of an amplification there is a decrease in the intensity of the sound.

A reverbration is a series of echos following each other in rapid succession.

XLV. The most favorable shape of a resonance cavity is when its body is large in comparison to the size of its narrowed portion, which ends in a restricted outlet; and when, the boundaries of the cavity being curved, the walls gradually converge as they approach the restricted outlet.

XLVI. The resonance mechanisms of speech production are formed by the cavities of the pharynx, of the mouth, and of the nose. In the production of speech sounds these cavities should be used to the fullest extent appropriate to the case. In the hum, only the cavities of the pharynx and of the nose are used for resonance purposes.

XLVII. Concentration of the air waves inside of a cavity near the outlet is the essential factor of resonance. In the voice mechanism this concentration can best be attained when there is the largest possible space in the pharynx, upper and lower. This condition requires the low and forward position of the tongue. This is the position of rest of these structures. The soft palate and the back of the tongue take no active part in the amplification of speech sounds. They merely form a part of the boundaries of the resonance cavities. When the above described condition obtains, the air waves started by the vocal cords are concentrated

near the restricted outlets of the mouth and nose, and are discharged into the outside air before this concentration is broken up.

XLVIII. Speech of necessity consists of a sequence of changing sounds, and these changes are produced by changes of resonance. For this reason, in the production of speech sounds, resonance is a vital factor. There could be no science of phonetics without resonance. It is therefore necessary that the conditions essential for its proper application shall be thoroughly understood. It is possible to produce the tone sound a (as in father), and the noise sound, ha, whispered, without changing the resonance; or we could do the same with e and whispered he, and so on through all the tone sounds. However, a change from ah to ee, or any change from one tone sound to another, or any change from a tone sound to a noise sound, with the exception of the one noted above, requires a resonance change. It is therefore impossible to produce more than two speech sounds without resonance changes.
requires a resonance change. It is therefor impossible to produce more than two speech sounds without resonrance changes.

XLIX. Resonance changes are produced mainly by changing the position of the front of the tongue, and the position of the lips. This can be effected without involving the contraction of the muscles of the soft palate, the muscles of the back of the tongue or the muscles of the "false cords."

L. An important fact in connection with the resonance of the voice mechanism, is that the action of the resonance cavities is much more effective, in tone production, when a particular combination of partial tones is projected into them. This particular combination of partial tones is found when the fundamental and the lower overtones are predominant, and the higher overtones are subordinated. In the tone sounds the above named combination results when there is a free unhampered swing of the vocal cords.

LI. The free and unhampered swing of the vocal cords can only take place when the ventricular bands (false cords), which lie directly above the true cords, are widely separated. This is the position of rest of the ventricular bands, whose chief function is to prevent particles of food, liquid and solid, from dropping into the larynx during the act of swallowing.

For the above reasons the proper use of resonance demands

the relaxation of the muscles of the back of the tongue (hyo-glossi), the muscles of the soft palate, and the muscles of the ventricular bands. The principal function of these structures is in the act of swallowing, and they should remain quiescent during tone production.

Swallowing and Speech Production

LIII. It is easily understood, therefore, that the throat structures have two important functions to perform, namely: the act of voice production and the act of swallowing. It is also clear that these two acts are antagonistic, the one to the other. During tone production any contraction of the swallowing muscles is an interference.

LIV. Another important fact to bear in mind, is that in swallowing, the muscles of the back of the tongue are the first to act, and the contraction of the muscles of the soft palate and of the ventricular bands follows. It is evident then, that if the muscles of the back of the tongue remain passive, the others will not contract. Correct resonance in voice production requires the relaxation of the muscles of the back of the tongue (hyo-glossi). The latter muscles are attached indirectly to the pitch mechanism, and any contraction of them interferes with the correct action of the pitch mechanism. The conclusion is that if the muscles of the back of the tongue remain passive, there can be no interference in the production of changes of volume, quality and pitch in speech sounds.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON HIGH SCHOOL COURSES

FRANC M. BERRY
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THE Committee heartily endorse the report made by Mr. Weaver's Committee of last year as to aims, purposes, and general objectives of high school courses. We understand this report to suggest three main objectives; namely, the standardization of courses, the inadequate supply of trained teachers, and the problem of texts. We respectfully submit suggestions for each of these.

In considering the first, the standardized course, it is imperative that we remember the great diversity of entrance requirements in the different Universities and Colleges, and so offer suggestions which will meet the various needs of high school administration. The Association has agreed that the standardized course, that is, the course placed on a unit basis, will go far toward solving the problem of college entrance credit.

A unit is defined by practically all secondary schools as a year's work in any branch of study requiring five recitations per week of not less than forty minutes each for thirty-six weeks. A *credit* represents one semester's work in any branch of study requiring five recitations per week of not less than forty minutes each for eighteen weeks. Two semesters or two credits then represent one unit or one year's work in a particular subject. The Universities and Colleges require, as a rule, fifteen units for entrance. Most high schools require four units or one year's work in English, allowing, on occasion, some electives in the third and fourth years.

Since Oral English and Public Speaking are so closely related we must consider them together as well as separately. Many schools in the different parts of the country have one day per week of Oral English which is taught either by the regular English teacher or a specially prepared teacher of public speaking. The regular English teachers emphasize communication through the composition of ideas and style, commendable and necessary, indeed; but in many

cases they lose sight entirely of communication through delivery. We do not need either extreme; we need, rather, equal emphasis for the one without the other is largely useless. It is true, "an empty head makes the most noise"; yet a brilliant mind, bound by inability of voice and body to express its ideas and feelings will also fail in usefulness. The teacher of public speaking, communication through delivery, placed in charge of oral English would be at least an improvement. Indeed, many English teachers welcome a special teacher.

In our suggested courses, we will use the terms public speaking, oral English, oral expression, and reading; and keep ever in mind the fact that communication with the audience through ideas and through delivery must go hand in hand. Let us further consider the names of courses. The use of the term public speaking has become a bit traditional through the promotion of the communication through delivery idea. It is not so popular at present, perhaps, as the term Oral English, communication through composition of ideas. Investigation shows that Speech Training is growing in popularity in the Middle West, although many courses retain the term Oral English in order to secure University credit. The East and South still cling to the term, Oral English. Public speaking, Oral English, speech training, if you please, must stand upon its own feet. Good teachers of this subject (and only those with proper training can be good teachers) are proving the worth of their labors as is shown by the added interest in the subject and recognition of the work which is being done. The University departments of public speaking are turning out more graduates yearly, and the schools of Expression are offering four year courses with a bachelor degree. Time will solve the teaching problem. Experienced teachers, in plenty, will soon be available. Wide awake English teachers are turning to our University summer schools and schools of Expression for special training. Is not this significant? Do they not read the signs aright?

To summarize briefly: We submit three fundamental courses under the name of public speaking, Oral expression or Oral English. Combined with these are elective and required Courses in debate, dramatics, extemporaneous speech, advanced interpretation, the open Forum, etc. Summaries and diagram in mimeographed form have been distributed which we hope will be of use.

Course I. Name—Oral Expression
Public Speaking
Oral English (when nothing else will do)

Purpose—To lead through the high school period to self expression and incidentally prepare for advanced college courses

Hours—1 period per week for 4 years

Credit—1 unit (one-fourth credit for each year)
(This would not work out mathematically, but benefit derived from the course would merit the credit.)

Content—1st year.—Required
a. Freedom of body
b. Phrasing
c. Enunciation and Pronunciation
2nd year.—Elective
a. Vocal response
b. Reading and Interpretation
3rd year.—Elective
a. Communication of ideas
b. Public Speaking (special preparation extemporaneous)
c. Story Telling
4th year.—Required
a. Play reading—presentation
Debate

Successful Courses now in operation which fit Course I.

1. Peddie Institute—Hightstown, N. J.
2. Chicago Course—(New course adopted Dec. 2.) One previously outlined by B. F. Herring. (See Senn [High School] Green Book.) Especially good
3. Cleveland School—(Course known as Oral English)
4. New York State—Course known as Oral English. (Requires 1 period per week of oral work and counts as English credit)
5. South High School, Minneapolis

Course II. Name—Oral Expression (preferred)
Public Speaking (preferred)
Oral English

Purpose—The foundation course in public speaking should prepare the student to take his place in the community. It should develop poise, personality, initiative, and an active interest in civic, state, and national affairs

Hours—1 semester of 5 periods a week—preferably last half of Sophomore English

Credit—One-half unit

Content—Required

1. Organization—Each student should know simple parliamentary rules, which would enable him to successfully preside at local meetings
2. Voice Training—How to discover quality—Breath control—Clear enunciation—Correct pronunciation—Response to thought and feeling
3. Training the Body—Correct carriage, posture—Poise—Correct sitting, rising, standing and walking—Communication in delivery through response of body to thought and feeling

Successful courses now in operation which fit Course II

1. Prep High School Course—Western Normal School, Kalamazoo, Mich. (now known as Oral English) Lousene Rosseau
2. South High School, Youngstown, Ohio

Elective Courses (combined with Course II in 3rd or 4th year or substituted for Course II in second year).

A. Debate

Hours—1 semester of 5 periods per week

Credit—One-half unit

Content—Half time in theory—half in practice. Teach the student to state the question properly, analyze it definitely, read and study both sides of the question, find the issues, secure good evidence, prepare a bibliograph, and speak extemporaneously

B. Dramatics
Hours—1 semester of 5 periods per week
Credit—One-half unit
Content—Study of modern one act plays—Group work—Dramatization of classics and local history. Study the development of the drama—technique—standards—modern and period plays

C. Advanced Interpretation
Hours—1 semester of 5 periods per week
Credit—One-half unit
Content—Advanced Training of the voice—Breath control—its relation to phrasing—Sight reading—Development of imagination and increasing appreciation of literature. Includes more reading and speaking

D. Open Forum
Hours—Same
Credit—Same
Content—Open discussion of assigned subjects. Mental outlines—Oratory—Formal Address—After Dinner Speaking

E. Extemporaneous Speech
Hours—Same
Credit—Same
Content—Special emphasis on mental outlines. Attention to five ends of Speech (Clearness, Impressiveness, Belief, Action, and Entertainment)

Elective Courses for year III or IV

Debate
1. South High School, Minneapolis
2. Peddie Institute—J. Walter Reeves

Dramatics
1. South High School, Minneapolis
2. D. J. Heathcote, Kalamazoo, Mich. (High School)

Advanced Interpretation
1. Utica Free Academy—Public Speaking II
2. J. Walter Reeves—Peddie Institute
3. B. F. Herring—Chicago (High School)

4. D. J. Heathcote—Kalamazoo, Mich. (High School)
5. South High School—Minneapolis

Open Forum
1. Utica Free Academy

Course III. Name—Public Speaking

Purpose—Emphasize speech preparation—delivery—composition—organized thinking. Incidental attention to voice and body necessary in putting across one's thoughts from the platform

Hours—One year course of five periods weekly

Credit—One-half unit

Content—The types of speech—What speech is—Preparation and delivery. Some memory work. Study of the relation of voice and body in presenting the speech from the platform. Half of the time in composition of speech and half in delivery. Delivery should be entirely extempore

Combination Course with Course III—Elective for 3rd or 4th year or last half of 1st or 2nd year.

A. Debate
Hours—One year, five periods a week
Credit—One-half unit
Content—Half time in theory, half in practice

B. Dramatics
Hours—One year, five periods a week
Credit—One-half unit
Content—Group work—presentation and study of plays (emphasis on the one act play)

Successful Courses now in operation which fit Course III.
D. J. Heathcote—Kalamazoo, Mich.
(Similar courses not combined)

In considering the second, the present supply of teachers of speech, the Committee sent out the following questionnaire to representative schools of Expression.

1. How many graduates will you have this year?
2. Of this number how many could meet the educational re-

quirements for teachers of accredited secondary schools?

3. How many of you present Alumni have at least a B. A. degree?

4. How many are at present teaching in secondary schools?

From the answers we have the following:

Northwestern (1) 20, (2) 20, (3) 200, (4) no data

Emerson (1) 30, (2) 30, (3) no data (probably 1 in 10) (4) no data

Leland Powers (1) 10, (2) 10, (3) no answer, (4) no data

Morse (1) 20, (2) 10, (3) 10, (4) none

These schools of Expression, you see, will offer in all eighty degree teachers this year, with an indefinite number of experienced teachers in the field.

The following questionnaire was sent to sixty representative Universities, Colleges and Normal Schools.

1. How many of your graduates are teaching speech courses in secondary schools?

2. How many of your graduate students and undergraduate seniors will major in speech this year?

3. Do you consider this a fair representation from your student body?

4. Do you believe speech education in secondary schools would send more students to college with a definite intention of majoring in speech?

5. How many secondary schools on your credit list offer speech courses for which you give credit?

6. Are your requirements for teachers of speech similar to the requirements for teachers of other subjects?

7. What high school speech work do you accept as college entrance units?

8. How many graduation credits are accepted (in speech) by the approved list?

Twenty-two of the sixty answered. The most significant feature of this part of the report lies in the fact that no answers came from Normal Schools. It is from the Normals that we draw a large per cent of our teachers. Surely a problem confronts us there.

Are they not interested? From these answers, we estimate about one hundred twenty teachers now on the field, one hundred and ten majors in speech this year. Practically no data for five, one exception of the University of Michigan has 75 secondary schools on its credit list which offer speech courses. Requirements for teachers were in every case the same as requirements for teachers of other subjects. High school credit were accepted as lump credit, part of maximum for English. In a few cases they accept whatever the high school accepts. The significant and hopeful result of the investigation lies in the affirmative answer to the question, do you believe that speech education in secondary schools would send more students to college with a definite intention of majoring in speech? The twenty-two schools answered—yes.

A few significant facts concerning the interest in different states:

University of North Dakota: No differentiation between speech and English.

New York City University: No major in speech. Oral English more popular.

University of Michigan: Decided interest in public speaking shown by large number of majors.

Syracuse (N. Y.) University: Emphasis on Oral English. Larger call for teachers than they can supply.

Oregon State Agricultural College: Offers no major work which counts toward a degree but have a strong Public Speaking department with much interest.

De Pauw University: Offers a combination major in Public Speaking and English. Seem to emphasize public speaking taught by specially trained teachers.

Northwestern University: Reports great interest. Offers a Bachelor's Degree and will offer a master's next year.

Boston University: Reports limited field because of numerous schools of Expression.

University of Minnesota: Use term of public speaking and accept credit in same.

University of Iowa: Lean toward the Oral English courses.

Kansas City University: Report speech work under way.

University of Arkansas: Favor speech in secondary schools.

Oberlin College, Ohio: Accept credit only as English.

The problem of texts is a different one. Rarely do we find teachers of English agreeing upon suitable texts, no more should we expect teachers of public speaking to agree. Some books emphasize composition, some delivery—all have good points. Many teachers prefer to outline. However, I think the adoption of a text adds dignity to the course in the eyes of the students. "Public Speaking Today," Lockwood and Thorpe has an appeal although we do not agree that it is superior. The style is clear, forceful, and appeals to the student. The exercises are usable. Stratton's "Public Speaking" is a splendid text for Oral English classes, but pays practically no attention to communication through delivery. Brewer's "Oral English" is popular but lacks a sane attention to delivery. Baldwin's "Writing and Speaking," in two small volumes, is admirable on Oral Composition. Dr. Woolbert and Mr. Weaver and Mr. Winans are planning high school texts. No doubt there are other valuable texts which we have not seen. A list of supplementary books follow:

Phillips—Natural Drills in Expression
Powers—Practice Book
Cumnock—Choice Readings
Woolbert—Fundamentals of Speech
Phillips—Effective Speaking

Reeves, "Argumentation and Debate" which gives much attention to theory, yet is not too technical, is an admirable text for high school use.

Useful Supplementary Texts

Manual of Oral Argument and Oral Discussion---O'Neill
Elements of Debating ----------Lyon
Exposition and Argument ----------Foster
Argumentation and Debate ----------Foster

We have tried to make our report a definite expansion of the very excellent report given by Mr. Weaver's Committee of last year.

First, we offer general foundation courses in Oral English or public speaking and combinations of courses, which we have outlined on a unit basis, and planned to meet the needs of various administrations. Second, we have investigated by questionnaire

Successful Courses now in operation which fit Course II.

1. Prep. High School Course, Western Normal School, Kalamazoo, Mich. (Oral English)
2. South High School, Youngstown, Ohio

Elective Courses for year III or IV:

Debate

1. South High School, Minneapolis
2. Peddie Institute, Hightstown, N. J.

Dramatics

1. South High, Minneapolis
2. D. J. Heathcote, Kalamazoo, Mich. (High School)

Advanced Interpretation

1. Utica Free Academy (Public Speaking I)
2. Peddie Institute
3. Chicago High School (B. F. Herring)
4. Kalamazoo, Mich., High School
5. South High School, Minneapolis

Open Forum

1. Utica Free Academy

Course III. A one year course of five periods a week—name, Public Speaking—half time in composition and half in delivery. Combined with Debate and Dramatics (Elective in first or second semester of Sophomore year or Elective in either semester of third and fourth year.)

Year	*Hours*	*Credit*	*Content*
I or II	5 periods per week	½ unit	Types of Speech Preparation and Delivery
Second semester of I or II	5 periods per week	½ unit	Debate—Theory and Practice Group Work—Play Production
Either semester of III or IV	5 periods per week	½ unit	Debate—Theory and Practice Group Work—Play Production

EDITORIAL

THE CONVENTION

THE 1921 Convention will stand as one of the noteworthy gatherings of the National Association of Teachers of Speech. A record attendance of representative members gathered in Chicago with the evident desire to profit by association together and to get business done. A perusal of the minutes on another page will show the progress made in important ways; notably the report on college-entrance credit, the report on high school courses as now given in representative schools, the report on beginning college course, and the report on normal schools. All of these reports will appear in this or subsequent numbers of THE JOURNAL. They are exceptionally well done and worthy of careful study and consideration. While it may be invidious to single out certain chairmen for commendation, still it would show lack of appreciation not to mention the excellent work done by Miss Franc Berry, Mr. J. W. Reeves, and Miss Lousene Rousseau. Reports such as they gave put solidity and force into our gatherings and legislation, and the association owes them a special debt of gratitude.

The heartiest of praise is due President Drummond for the very superior program he provided. The regret of the whole association is deeply felt that temporary ill health prevented him from being present and guiding the convention through its course. We missed the steadying of his voice in council and the geniality of his presence in fraternal association.

GROWTH

THE National Association of Teachers of Speech needs added means of growth. We seem to have exploited our old methods about to the limit; we must now do something more than send out sample copies of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL, programs of the annual convention, and fugitive personal solicitations. The interest in

speech training is now widespread and spreading wider; it awaits the proper method of focusing it and keeping it sustained.

The best suggestion yet seems to be that the Association take steps to make its influence felt at all general educational gatherings; the National Educational Association, the Annual Superintendents' Meeting, the meetings of the North Central—and similar—associations, State Teachers Associations, Schoolmasters Clubs, High School Conferences, and even civic and women's clubs. All these are rightly interested in better speech, and by their very interest extend an invitation to the official organization of speech teachers to come and enlist them in the cause.

The specific recommendation of this note is that members everywhere take it upon themselves, without any special commission or urging, to present the claims of speech as a school and college discipline to state, sectional, and national associations of any and all kinds; seek out the officers in your vicinity to whom you have peculiar geographic access, and present the claims of the National Association. If in doubt as to special procedure, ask President Merry; he took it upon himself last summer to attend the N. E. A. at Des Moines and make opening overtures for a better consideration for speech work in the national body.

Report your actions to the editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL, and items of interest will be printed in the new department of "News and Notes".

A COMMITTEE ON NOMENCLATURE

WHO are we and what is our name? We settle the matter and then it refuses to stay settled. Professor Wianans at the recent convention raised the question once more in a searching paper, much to the interest, if not excitement, of everybody present. Following the paper, which questioned the appropriateness of the term Speech as a name for the discipline covered by the National Association, a motion carried providing that the incoming president should appoint a committee to study the matter and report at the next convention. President Merry has selected his committee on a simple basis; the former presidents of the Association. So the committee stands as follows: J. A. Winans, chairman; J. M. O'Neill, J. L. Lardner, H. S. Woodward, C. H. Woolbert, A. W. Drummond.

The function of this committee is to find out as best it can what

title most properly fits the National Association. It welcomes suggestions from all sources and will receive with gratitude any contributions to the issue. There is more in this than surface indications might indicate. The National Association at its birth marked a new step in education, a new venture in marking out curricular boundaries, an untried enterprise in amalgamation, assimilation, and extension. Nothing of its precise nature had ever existed before. Well-tilled fields, old fallow ground, and virgin prairie were brought within the same confines. And now that he have them inside the fence, what are they?

The committee, with the help of all members of the Association, will endeavor to find out.

NEWS AND NOTES IN THE QUARTERLY

SINCE the founding of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL there has been a more or less persistent call for a department that will furnish items of news about the members of the Association and about movements and changes in various institutions. Until recently this call has not been insistent enough to warrant a change of editorial policy. Now the wish seems to be widespread that the official organ of the Association provide space for items of news of interest to the profession as a whole.

So the editor wishes to announce that from time to time there will appear a department known as News and Notes, in which will be published such items as are deemed of general interest. The following will make good reading:

Actions toward presenting the work of speech training to educational bodies.

Changes in departmental personnel or staff management.

New courses or curriculum changes.

The formation of new debating, oratorical and discussion leagues.

New class-room methods.

New professorships and fellowships.

The following are not deemed of general interest:

Debate victories.

The outcome of oratorical contests.

Personals.

THE FORUM

SECRETARY'S MINUTES OF THE SIXTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH

Auditorium Hotel, December 28, 29, 30, 1921

WEDNESDAY MORNING, DECEMBER 28

IN the absence of President Drummond, the convention was called to order by the First Vice-President, F. H. Lane. Miss Lousene Rousseau was appointed Secretary, due to the absence of Miss Marja Stedman, Secretary of the Association. The Secretary read a telegram from President Drummond which expressed good wishes for the convention, and regretted the necessity for his absence. Prof. Immel moved that the Association send a telegram to President Drummond expressing hopes for his speedy recovery. The motion was supported and carried unanimously.

The convention proceeded at once to the program for the first morning. J. S. Gaylord, of Northwestern University, delivered the first address, "The Psychology of Gesture as a Means of Communication." Open discussion followed, by Woolbert, Shurter, Merry, Mrs. Chorpenning, Trueblood, and Marshman.

The next paper, "The Crime Against Public Speaking," by Warren C. Shaw of Knox College, was a scathing denunciation of contest coaching, and provoked a lively discussion, during which Ewbank, who introduced the discussion, Miller Hunt, Merry, Sarett, Immel, O'Neill, Shurter, Menser, Marshman and Shaw took occasion to express opinions.

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON

The session was called to order by Acting President Lane.

Mr. Immel, Business Manager of the Quarterly, announced details concerning registration. Ryan requested informatrion regarding reduced railroad fares. It was moved, seconded and carried that a committee of two should be appointed to investigate the matter. Ryan was made chairman of the committee.

The program for the afternoon was opened when J. Walter Reeves, of Peddie Institute, gave the report of the Committee on College Entrance. The report indicated that the committee had accomplished a great deal of work during the past year. The following resolutions were submitted to the Association for action:

1. That this Association send by telegraph a vote of thanks to the secretaries mentioned in the report for their willingness to bring the matter of college entrance credit before their executive committees and their Associations.

2. That each college teacher make it a point to learn whether or not his college or university allows entrance credit for public speaking, and if it does not, to try to convince the president or dean that the institution should.

3. That the Association as a unit requests the different associations that have to do with entrance credit (a) that they give this matter their most careful attention; (b) that if they give entrance credit they should be careful to publish it in their catalogs; (c) that they differentiate between English and Public Speaking.

4. That the Association determine what is the most effective way of getting the proper information before these conventions of college associations.

5. That this Association adopt certain standardized courses for Public Speaking in secondary schools and use the most effective way of getting syllabi of these courses before the proper college authorities.

The motion was made by Merry, seconded and carried, to accept the report. Discussion by Winans. Motion made by Shurter to adopt the recommendations of the commitee. Reeves objected on the ground that the report needed more consideration. Discussed by Merry. The first three resolutions were read individually and adopted. Shurter moved that a committee be appointed to carry out the third recommendation with the support of the Association. Seconded and carried. It was moved, seconded and carried to refer the fourth resolution to a committee with power to act. O'Neill moved that the fifth resolution be laid upon the table until after the report on high school courses. Seconded and

carried. The motion was made, seconded, and carried to adopt to adopt the resolution as a whole.

The first paper of the afternoon, "The Recognition of Individual Differences in Class Instruction in Beginning Courses," was read by L. R. Norvelle of the University of Iowa. The discussion was by Harris, West and Norvelle.

Because of the absence of M. J. Luch, of Lehigh University, the address on "Teaching Engineers How to Speak" was omitted.

The last address of the afternoon, "Adding Substance to Form in Public Speaking Courses," was delivered by Everett Lee Hunt, of Cornell University. Discussion followed, by Mikesell, Dolman, O'Neill, Menser, and Hunt.

Mr. Simon announced plans for the banquet Thursday evening. At the request of the members present the hour was changed from seven to six.

H. B. Gough, of De Pauw University, made the report for the Committee on Beginning Courses. The committee reported a very extensive survey of conditions in colleges, universities and normal schools, and made three recommendations, as follows:

1. That for the Freshman year, a one, two, or three-hour course should, as may be practicable, be offered.

2. That whether the Beginning Course is elective or required, it should, if offered *after* the Freshman year, be made a year-course, yielding three hours per semester credit.

3. That whether the Beginning Course be offered in the Freshman year or thereafter, whether it be elective or required, it should be given with the primary aim of developing ability, as far as time limitations permit, to read and speak acceptably; that is, ability in the student standing before an audience, to keep control of his powers, to think, to compose, and to communicate effectively; and with the secondary aim of laying broad foundations for further study and training in speech or public speaking.

Shaw moved the adoption of this report, which was seconded and carried. West, as a member of the committee, submitted two subsidiary resolutions:

1. That such Beginning Course in Speech as incorporate the suggestions of this Association thus far promulgated, should be given full credit.

2. That the ideal section in Beginning Courses in Speech should number twelve or fifteen, but not more than twenty.

This report was adopted without discussion.

THURSDAY MORNING—GENERAL SESSION

The meeting was called to order by Ruth Kentzler. After Immel's announcements regarding registration and dues, Ralph Dennis, of Northwestern University, delivered an address on "The Necessary Plus." The discussion, by Cunningham, Sarett, Miss Johnson, and Merry, consisted largely of expressions of gratitude for the excellent paper.

The second address scheduled for the morning, "Problems of Public Speaking in Colleges," was not given, owing to the absence of Ralph Himstead, of Cornell College, Iowa.

Committees were appointed or elected: The auditing committee consisted of Hunt, Hopkins, and Miss Berry; the Resolutions Committee included Dolman, Ewbank, and Mrs. Herring; the Nominating Committee, which was elected, was composed of Winans, O'Neill, Dennis, Harris, and Ruth Kentzler.

Simon moved that the Nominating Committee be instructed to appoint a chairman for the banquet. Seconded and carried.

THURSDAY MORNING—HIGH SCHOOL SECTION

The session was opened by H. D. Hopkins of Saginaw, Michigan. The following program was carried out:

Report of the Committee on High School Courses, by Miss Franc Berry, of Clear Lake, Iowa. Discussion by Reeves, Mrs. Perkins, Miss Kentzler, and Mrs. Herring.

Address: "The Organization, Aims, and Results of High School Courses in Public Speaking from the Administrator's Point of View," E. G. Diehm, of Youngstown, Ohio.

Address: "A High School Course in Public Speaking," Paul B. Ginther, of Utica, New York.

THURSDAY MORNING—COLLEGE DEBATING AND CONTEST SECTION

The session was opened by Lew R. Sarett, of Northwestern University. The single address of the session was on "The Methods of Judging Debates and Contests," by Robert West, of the University of Wisconsin. Discussion was opened by I. M. Cochran(of Carleton College, and continued by Immel, Cunningham, Gable, Hunt, O'Neill, Shaw, Trueblood, and West.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON—GENERAL SESSION

The convention was called to order for this session by Thomas

C. Trueblood of the University of Michigan. Professor Paul Shorey, of the Greek Department of the University of Chicago, delivered a masterly address: "What Teachers of Speech may Learn from the Theory and Practice of the Greeks." The address was warmly received, and Lardner moved that the Association extend a vote of thanks to Professor Shorey for his most delightful paper. The motion was carried unanimously.

The next address, "The Advantages and Possible Disadvantages of School and College Contests," was given by E. D. Shurter, of the University of Texas. Discussion followed, by Orr, Hopkins, Dickinson, Youmans, Beach, Weaver, Cunningham, Ewbank, Dean, Miss Rousseau. Mikesell moved that an advisory committee of five be appointed to look into the matter of investigating a state and national plan of inter-collegiate and interscholistic organization, with instructions to report to the convention at the business meeting Friday morning. Seconded and carried. Shurter, Mikesell, Miss Shaw, Dean, and Orr were appointed to the committee.

The secretary read a telegram of greeting from the National Association for American Speech.

J. A. Winans, of Dartmouth College, addressed the Association on the subject, "Hindsight and Foresight." Ryan moved that a committee be appointed to investigate the use of the term Speech and report to the Association. The motion was seconded and discussed by O'Neill, and carried.

Friday Morning—General Session

The meeting was called to order by Acting President Lane. The report of the Research Committee was made by Glenn N. Merry, of the University of Iowa. Lathers moved the adoption of the report and continuation of the committee. It was decided that this committee should be appointed by the incoming president. Discussed by Hunt and Winans. Carried.

Mr. Shurter presented the report of the advisory committee on the Texas plan. The committee recommended the adoption of three resolutions:

1. This Association believes that training for citizenship is an important function of schools and colleges.

2. That contests in public speaking may and should be made a means of citizenship training.

3. That the advisory committee be continued with instructions to present a fuller and more definite report on "The Citizenship League of American Schools and Colleges" at the next meeting of this Association.

Upon motion of O'Neill the first two resolutions were eliminated, on the ground that the ideas there expressed were too well-known to need re-statement. The third resolution was adopted.

The report of a Normal School Speech Survey was presented by Miss Lousene Rousseau, of Western State Normal College, Kalamazoo, Michigan. This was followed by a series of resolutions offered by J. S. Gaylord, as chairman of the Normal School Committee. These resolutions were as follows:

1. That each Normal School or Teacher's College offers one fundamental course in speech, to be required of all students.

2. That elective or required courses be offered by the Department of Speech in Story-Telling, Public Speaking, Play Production, Argumentation and Debate, Reading, and Interpretation.

3. That each course emphasize content as well as form.

4. That only persons having a technical training in speech and at least a Bachelor's degree be considered adequately prepared to teach Speech in a Normal School or Teacher's College.

5. That Speech work be separate and distinct from the work of other departments.

6. That the course in reading include oral reading in the elementary schools.

7. That the aims of the first course be spontaneity of action and voice, skill in the choice and use of words, good taste in the choice of material, and ability to communicate effectively.

8. That less emphasis than is usual be placed on the immediate usefulness of training in speech.

9. That a committee on Normal Schools and Teacher's Colleges be appointed by the incoming president of our Association to continue the work of the present committee and to report at our next convention.

Marshman moved that the report and the resolutions be printed in the Quarterly Journal. Carried. Gough moved that the resolutions be taken up one at a time. Carried. Upon motion of O'Neill, and discussion by Lathers and Gough, it was decided to limit discussion to one minute. Lathers moved that the resolutions be laid upon the table for one year, sent to the Normals, and published in the Quarterly. After discussion by Lathers, Gough, Rousseau, and Hopkins, the motion was carried.

C. H. Woolbert, of the University of Illinois, gave the report of the Editor of the Quarterly Journal. He discussed changes

in the policy of the magazine, and asked for contributions of a more popular nature, such as descriptions of courses.

The report of the Membership Committee was included in the report of the Treasurer and Business Manager, given by R. K. Immel, of the University of Michigan. Mr. Hunt reported that the auditing committee had examined the reports and found them satisfactory. Since the report appears elsewhere in this issue, no summary will be given here.

The report of the Speech Week Committee was given by A. T. Weaver, of the University of Wisconsin, in the absence of E. C. Mabie, of the University of Iowa. The report was as follows:

1. We recommend that the National Association of Teachers of Speech adopt an aggressive policy of exerting influence through all channels to bring about the adoption of a comprehensive all-the-year-round program of Speech Education in the public schools. We believe the program should include systematic and regularly organized class work in Speech Training.

2. We recommend that a committee on Speech Education in the Public Schools be appointed, and be instructed to undertake a carefully prepared work-program. The time at the disposal of your preliminary committee is not sufficient to permit of the preparation of satisfactory recommendations regarding the details of that work-program.

3. We believe that the National Association of Teachers of Speech should take a broad view of the educational problem we are trying to solve, and should encourage all efforts to improve speech and speech training in American schools, regardless of the organizations backing them, provided such activity is carried on in the light of our *best knowledge*, and provided it is carried on under the direction of teachers adequately trained.

4. We believe that a satisfactory policy for the National Association of Teachers of Speech to follow with reference to the "Better Speech Week" of the National Council of Teachers of English is expressed in the foregoing paragraph. The same policy should be maintained with reference to the activity of the Federated Women's Clubs, and that of any other organization. The National Association of Teachers of Speech should maintain its separate committee and should undertake its own program. We believe at this time that action either directing or prohibiting coöperation with the National Council of Teachers of English is unnecessary and undesirable. We believe that the interests of speech education in the public schools can be best served by careful work on the part of the much needed committee, the appointment of which we are recommending.

This report was adopted after some discussion by Shurter.

J. M. O'Neill, of the University of Wisconsin, gave the report

of the Committee on Permanent Plan for Place and Time of Convention. The Committee recommended:

1. That the National Convention be held every year.
2. That the National Convention be held during the Christmas holidays.
3. That the National Convention be held according to Circuit A for the next four years.
4. That the National Association should recommend, and take appropriate steps to assist in carrying out the recommendation, that a yearly state meeting of all teachers of speech be held in each state of the Union, if possible in connection with the annual meeting of the state teacher's association, and that reports of all such meetings should be reported in the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH EDUCATION.
5. That the circuit plan adopted should provide for two meetings in Chicago to one in New York and one in Denver.

The first four recommendations were read and adopted with little opposition. The fifth was seconded and discussed by Ryan, Wilner, and Kane. Shurter moved to substitute San Francisco for Denver. After discussion by Woolbert, Dolman amended the motion by substituting St. Louis for San Francisco. Discussion by Hopkins and Shurter. Kansas City was accepted by Dolman instead of St. Louis, at Woolbert's suggestion. Discussion by Gough, O'Neill, Dolman, Immel. Ryan introduced a substitute motion to meet two years in Chicago to one year in the east. After discussion by Hopkins, Weaver, and Mikesell, Weaver moved that we rescind our action adopting a circuit plan. The motion was seconded and discussed by Hopkins, Reeves, Dolman, O'Neill, and Menser and defeated when a rising vote was called for. Merry moved that the meetings be held in Chicago one year, New York the next, some place between New York and Chicago the third year, and Chicago the fourth year. Shurter asked unanimous consent to fix the time of meetings for only the next two years. Woolbert proposed a substitute motion to continue the committee and get a referendum from the Association members by mail. This was discussed by Gough, O'Neill, and Woolbert, and defeated. The original motion, that put by Merry, was voted on, and carried.

FRIDAY AFTERNOON—GENERAL SESSION

The meeting was opened by Clarence E. Lyon, of the University of South Dakota. The report of the Nominating Committee, given by J. A. Winans, was as follows:

President, Glenn N. Merry, University of Iowa.
First Vice-President, John Dolman, University of Pennsylvania.
Second Vice-President, Miss Virginia Rodigan, Racine, Wisconsin, High School.
Third Vice-President, J. Q. Adams, State University of Louisiana.
Secretary, Miss Lousene Rousseau, Western State Normal College, Kalamazoo, Michigan.
Treasurer, R. K. Immel, University of Michigan.
Editor of Quarterly Journal, C. H. Woolbert, University of Illinois.
Associate Editors, Mrs. Herring, Wendell Phillips H. S., Chicago.
Everett L. Hunt, Cornell University.
The Committee recommended that the President and the Editor of the Quarterly Journal be authorized to appoint the board of assistant editors.

The Committee also recommended that the Association request President Merry to continue as Chairman of the Research Committee.

By vote of the Association, these nominees were voted in office. The Association also accepted the recommendations of the committee that the assistant editors should be appointed by the Editor and the President, and that President Merry should be requested to continue to act as Chairman of the Research Committee.

John Dolman, of the University of Pennsylvania, submitted the report of the Committee on Resolutions, as follows:

1. RESOLVED, That the National Association of Teachers of Speech, in convention assembled, learns with deep regret of the death of Doctor S. S. Curry; and that the Secretary be directed to convey to Doctor Curry's family the sympathy of the Association.

2. RESOLVED, That the Association extend to the officers of 1921 its most sincere thanks for their labors; especially to Prof. A. M. Drummond for his year-long work in planning the 1921 convention; to Prof. R. K. Immel for his excellent performance of arduous duties, and to Prof. C. H. Woolbert for his splendid editorship of the QUARTERLY.

3. RESOLVED, That the Association extend to Prof. C. T. Simon its appreciation of his services in conducting the local arrangements of this Convention.

4. RESOLVED, That the Association extend to the management of the Auditorium Hotel its thanks for the courtesies offered.

5. RESOLVED, That the Association extend to Miss Lousene Rousseau its thanks for her services as Secretary *pro tem* of this Convention.

6. RESOLVED, That the Association extend to Miss Gladys Morton its thanks for her able assistance to the Business Manager.

7. RESOLVED, That the Secretary be directed to convey the foregoing resolutions to such of the persons mentioned as are not present at this session.

This report was accepted, and the resolutions adopted.

Ralph Dennis, of Northwestern University, suggested that it would be well to plan four meetings for normal school problems, four for high schools, and four for colleges and universities, with two meetings for all groups together; six high school teachers to prepare their program, and six normal school teachers to prepare their program; members to wear badges bearing name and school represented; roll-call to be answered by name and school.

Shaw moved that the incoming president appoint a committee to investigate the evils of coaching and to report their findings at the next meeting. Seconded and adopted.

As the first paper of the afternoon session, Mrs. A. Starr Best, of the Drama League of America, addressed the Association on the subject "The Drama League as an aid to Better Speech." It was moved by Mikesell, seconded and carried, that the program committee be instructed to give more time to the dramatic phase of speech work.

Dr. Elmer Kenyon, of Chicago, addressed the Association on the pathology of speech. Discussion by Blanton.

FRIDAY AFTERNOON—PHONETICS SECTION

The following program was given at this section, with Charles Fritz, of Otterbein College presiding.

Address: "English Sounds and their Relation to Voice Training," by Margaret Gray Blanton, Madison, Wisconsin.

Address: "Practical Organization of Speech Correction Work," by Henrietta Rackham, Mankato, Minnesota.

FRIDAY AFTERNOON—DRAMATICS SECTION

The following program was presented at this section, with Mrs. Margaret Jayne Collett, of Upper Iowa University, presiding.

Address: "Educational Standards in the Direction and Production of Plays as Part of the Work of a Department of Public Speaking," by John Dolman, of the University of Pennsylvania. Discussing following this address was by Miss Rodigan, Miss Johnson, and Reeves.

Address: "A Few Technical Aspects of Stage Direction," by Mrs. Charlotte B. Chorpening, of the Recreation Training School of Chicago. This was discussed by Dean.

LOUSENE G. ROUSSEAU, *Acting Secretary.*

NEW BOOKS

On Reading Aloud. By MURIEL HARRIS. North Americal Review, September, 1921, vol. 214, p. 345.

Oral reading is an affair of the classroom; it is a subject for educational propaganda. Its center of reference is the physical organ of speech and it connotes scientific teaching endured with patience and applied with practice. Reading allowed, on the other hand, carries with it implications of sociability, leisure, and love of literature. Teachers of speech—and others—must have wondered why so much oral reading produces so little reading aloud.

"Nineteenth Century scholarship read aloud with zest, and nineteenth century scholarship has no mean roll of names. Tennyson used to read his own works down at Blackdown, with its purple crowned heights and its wide view of Sussex Weald. Christina Rossetti read her poems, and charming Grant Allen his stories. At Rye, city of the fairy tales, or at his flat on the Chelsea embankment, Henry James would utter himself to a select few. Old Archbishop Whately educated his "accomplished" daughters by reading to them aloud; while in the families of the Lushingtons, the Hobhouses, the Trevelyans, reading aloud was part of the day's routine. And you traced idly the roses on the Aubusson carpet, or the hawthorne of the china vase, or—yes, it must be admitted—the plush snake round the bottom of the glass-cased clock, and you watched the lamplight shine softly on a silver head, or light up the "Salve Roma" of a Victorian bracelet; and—yes—there was a perfume, too, of warmth and flowers and leaves of old books and scented leather. And forevermore the stories became inseparable from that golden borderland where perhaps, alone, different generations can meet as one. . . .

"Reading aloud still exists, but so much else exists besides. And so it has fallen away, and some of its magic has gone, and it actually does belong to a period which can never be real again."

This colorful expression of regret ought to equal many lectures in reviving our sensitiveness to the charm of words. If we who profess to interpret the printed page could make our classes want to read aloud—but there are those who do, I suppose. At any rate we are grateful to Miss Harris for saying so well that which we express in the lingo of shop talk.

E. L. H., Ithaca, N. Y.

Educational Dramatics. By EMMA SHERMAN FRY. Lloyd Adams Noble, N. Y. Pp. 88.

"Educational Dramatics" by Emma Sheridan Fry, is an attempt to renew in our minds the necessity of using dramatics for stirring up starved creative impulses in the child and for developing individuality. This field is one which has been very often ignored; hence, any attempt to urge teachers to re-create dramatic instincts in children is welcomed. Perhaps it is because one expects so much in a book entitled "Educational Dramatics," that one feels disappointed after reading it. From the purpose given in the introduction, namely, "to meet the immediate needs of educators doing dramatic work," to help those who are "cooperating with universal instincts to develop the whole human being towards life and citizenship," one should expect something concrete and new.

Instead, the author wastes thirty pages stating in a very abstract, technical, and vague manner the reactions of life processes to stimuli and impulses. Moreover, this is based on the now old-fashioned Delsartean psychology,—that of dividing the body into different zones; an emotional zone, a mental zone, and a vital zone. The author has failed to realize that the body reacts as a whole and not piecemeal. Nothing produces these creative instincts in a more effective way than allowing the child to use an "all-in-one-piece" body. One has only to watch the child react to sime stimulus to discover how false a statement is that which says, "a full-chord expression tends to fully animate its own zone, and rouse associate sub-stations."

Chapters 6-9 offer nothing new in material. One finds there a set of very elementary rules for producing plays, given vaguely idealistic turns by the author. There is a certain amount of vim in the style, though it is injured at times by a gushy, feminine touch which often results in rhapsody; for instance, "We are one with the body, as the hand is one with the glove, as the rider and horse are one, as the light is one with the sun, and the scent is one with the rose."

The best chapter in the book is chapter 5, which gives the teacher the practical hints she needs and wants. Here is a concrete, explanatory work which can be of greatest possible help in developing personalities and in paving the way for dramatic activities. Had the book been saturated with such chapters, there would be no doubt of its popularity. The author really strikes the keynote of her title here, but fails to give the reader the substantial food that he is looking for in the rest of the book.

Perhaps, however, we shall find all that we are looking for in the author's promised next book, "The Educational Use of the Dramatic Instinct" especially a development of the principle that "educational profit to the player is the first consideration in all departments of production."

S. E. N., Urbana, Ill.

Eloquence. By E. A. THURBER. North American Review, June, 1921, vol. 213, p. 837.

"The man of rhythms breaks in upon the council, and because he stands well and waves well and booms well, he is listened to, and his advice is assumed as good: nay! the council leaps upon him, draws him to its bosom, and hails him mightily."

Perhaps it would be unfair to mention the rhythm with which Mr. Thurber assails rhythm. Since Plato used his eloquence to confound the orators, rhetoricians have condemned rhetoric. Intelligent men have said with Aristotle that rhetoric should confine itself to seeking such delivery as would cause neither pain nor pleasure. And they have agreed enthusiastically with him that the effectiveness of declamation is owing to the depraved character of the audience." And yet when they speak with the fire of feeling upon them, their speech becomes melodic. Rhetoricians, observing this,